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THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF IRON

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THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF IRON

A COMPLETE ACCOUNT OF ALL THE BEST KNOWN METHODS

FOR THE

Analysis of Iron, Steel, Pig-Iron, Iron Ore, Limestone, Slag, Clay, Sand, Coal, Coke, and Furnace and Producer Gases

BY

ANDREW ALEXANDER BLAIR

GRADUATE UNITED STATES NAVAL ACADEMY, 1866; CHIEF CHEMIST UNITED STATES BOARD APPOINTED TO TEST IRON, STEEL, AND OTHER METALS, 1875; CHIEF CHEMIST UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY AND TENTH CENSUS, 1880; MEMBER AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, ETC.

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SIXTH EDITION

PHILADELPHIA AND LONDON

J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY

1906

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TO

MY WIFE

WITHOUT WHOSE ASSISTANCE IT WOULD NEVER HAVE
BEEN WRITTEN

THIS VOLUME
IS
Dedicated

154700

PREFACE TO THE SIXTH EDITION.

THE changes in this edition are principally in the methods for the determination of carbon in iron, steel, and special alloys. There has been added a special chapter on chrome-tungsten steels and one on ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal. The importance of the alloys of the rarer metals, tungsten, chromium, nickel, vanadium, and molybdenum, seems to be constantly increasing, and the best methods for their determination and separation from one another should be at the command of the analyst.

PHILADELPHIA, May, 1906.

PREFACE TO THE FIFTH EDITION.

VERY few differences will be found between this and the fourth edition. Some minor corrections, the insertion of Walters's method for the color determination of manganese, and the description of the Shimer crucible for carbon determination being practically all the changes considered necessary.

PHILADELPHIA, December, 1902.

PREFACE TO THE FOURTH EDITION.

THE number of improved methods available, the use of new materials in technical work, and the general advance in chemical knowledge necessitated so many changes that in preparing the fourth edition of this work I decided to rewrite it entirely. In doing this I have substituted chemical terms for formulas in the text, omitted the marginal notes, and changed the nomenclature to coincide with that in general use. I hope that these changes will recommend themselves to the users of the book. The prompt and generous response to requests for information from members of my profession is shown in the foot-notes.

The entire labor of proof-reading and index-making has, by my enforced absence, been thrown on my friend and co-worker, Mr. J. Edward Whitfield, to whom this brief acknowledgment is but a poor indication of the weight of my obligation.

BORDIGHERA, January, 1901.

PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION.

SUCH changes as were necessary to bring the methods for the determination of the various elements in accord with the present state of the science have been made in this edition.

The method for the "Volumetric Determination of Phosphorus in Steel" is that worked out by the Sub-Committee on Standards of the International Steel Standards Committee, and as such is merely tentative. Its publication here is not official, but through the courtesy of the committee it is placed before the profession in the hope that criticism may confirm its value or point out its errors. The modifications in the method for the determination of sulphur in pig-iron are improvements, but no method is perfectly satisfactory. Two new methods for the determination of carbon are given, and some modifications of Volhard's method for the determination of manganese in high grade manganese ores are introduced.

Many minor changes have been made, and it is hoped that this edition may meet the same cordial reception as the two former.

LABORATORY OF BOOTH, GARRETT & BLAIR,
PHILADELPHIA, September, 1896.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

In preparing the second edition of this book I have tried to correct the mistakes that were apparent in the first edition, and to add such matter as the advance in analytical chemistry seemed to justify. In effecting the first of these objects I have been aided by such kindly criticism as the profession and reviews offered me, and in the second by the advice and assistance of many of my fellow-workers. Among others my thanks are due to Messrs. Maunsel White and A. L. Colby, of the Bethlehem Iron Company; Mr. Clemens Jones, of the Thomas Iron Company; Mr. E. F. Wood, of the Homestead Steel-Works; Mr. T. T. Morrell, of the Cambria Iron Company; Mr. H. C. Babbitt, of the Wellman Steel Company; Prof. F. W. Clarke, Chief Chemist U. S. Geological Survey; Mr. J. E. Stead, of Middlesborough, England; and Mr. J. Edward Whitfield, of Philadelphia.

It will be seen that the "Table of Atomic Weights" has been revised; the latest and most reliable values for the elements are given, and the "Table of Factors" has been changed to correspond to these values.

Laboratory of Booth, Garrett & Blair,
Philadelphia, June, 1891.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE various methods for the analysis of iron and steel, as well as the descriptions of special apparatus to facilitate the performance of the analytical work, are so widely distributed through transactions of societies, journals, reviews, periodicals, and works on general analytical chemistry that only the possessor of a chemical library can command the literature of the subject. It is my object in the following pages to bring within the compass of a single volume, as nearly as possible, all the methods of real value to the iron analyst, and in doing this to give the credit of originality for the different methods and improvements to the proper persons. In many cases this has been very difficult, and I shall be glad to have any mistake brought to my attention.

This work presupposes some knowledge of general and analytical chemistry, and some practical experience in laboratory work and manipulation, as it is intended to be a guide for the student of iron chemistry only. For such persons the details of the descriptions of the methods will, I hope, often prove of great assistance. With very few exceptions, these descriptions are the results of my own experience in the use of the methods, and the details are those that seemed to me to be of importance in their practical performance. Many of the special forms of apparatus are of my own contrivance; they have proved extremely useful to me, and I hope may facilitate in some cases the work of iron chemists, to whom often very little is given and of whom very much is required.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

APPARATUS 11

APPARATUS FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE SAMPLES 11

GENERAL LABORATORY APPARATUS 18

REAGENTS 37

ACIDS AND HALOGENS, 38. GASES, 42. ALKALIES AND ALKALINE SALTS, 44. SALTS OF ALKALINE EARTHS, 51. METALS AND METALLIC SALTS, 53. REAGENTS FOR DETERMINING PHOSPHORUS, 59.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF PIG-IRON, BAR-IRON, AND STEEL 60

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR. By evolution as Hydrogen Sulphide. *Absorption by alkaline solution of lead nitrate*, 60; *by ammoniacal solution of cadmium sulphate*, 63; *by ammoniacal solution of silver nitrate*, 63. *Absorption and oxidation by bromine and hydrochloric acid*, 64; *by potassium permanganate*, 65; *by hydrogen peroxide*, 65. By oxidation and solution, 66. Bamber's method for pig-iron, 67. Special precautions in the determination of sulphur in pig-irons, 67. RAPID METHODS. Volumetric determination by iodine, 68.

DETERMINATION OF SILICON, 72. By solution in nitric and hydrochloric acids, 72; in nitric and sulphuric acids, 73. By volatilization in a current of chlorine gas, 73. RAPID METHOD, 77.

DETERMINATION OF SLAG AND OXIDES, 78. By solution in iodine, 78. By volatilization in a current of chlorine gas, 80.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS, 80. The acetate method, 80. *When titanium is present*, 85. The molybdate method, 88. The combination method, 91. *When titanium is present*, 92. RAPID METHODS, 92. Volumetric method, 92. Alkalimetric method, 104. Direct weighing of the phosphomolybdate, 106.

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE, 108. The acetate method, 108. *General remarks on the acetate method*, 112. The nitric acid and potassium chlorate method (Ford's), 113. *Steels containing much silicon*, 115. Pig-iron, 115. Spiegel and ferro-manganese, 115. RAPID METHODS, 116. Volumetric methods. *Volhard's method*, 116. *Williams's method*, 118. *Bismuthate method*, 121. *Deshays's method*, 128. The color method (for steel), 129. *Walters's modification*, 131.

DETERMINATION OF CARBON, 132. TOTAL CARBON, 132. Direct combustion in a current of oxygen, 134. Direct combustion in a Gooch tubulated crucible, 139. Combustion with lead chromate and potassium chlorate, 143; with cupric oxide in a current of oxygen, 145. Solution and oxidation in sulphuric, chromic, and phosphoric acids, the volume of the carbonic acid being measured, 146; the carbonic acid being weighed, 149. Volatilization of the iron in a current of chlorine, and subsequent combustion of the residue, 151. Volatilization of the iron in a current of hydrochloric acid gas, and subse-

PAGE.

quent combustion of the residue, 156. Solution in potassium-cupric chloride, filtration, and weighing or combustion of the residue, 156. *Modification by Job and Davies*, 166. Repeated use of potassium-cupric chloride for the solution of steel, 170. *Combustion in the Shimer crucible*, 171. Solution in cupric sulphate, filtration, and combustion of the residue in a current of oxygen, 173. Solution in cupric sulphate, and oxidation of the residue by chromic and sulphuric acids, 174.

DETERMINATION OF GRAPHITIC CARBON 174

DETERMINATION OF COMBINED CARBON, 175. Indirect method, 175. Direct method (color method), 175.

DETERMINATION OF TITANIUM, 184. By precipitation, 184. By volatilization, 185.

DETERMINATION OF COPPER 185

DETERMINATION OF NICKEL AND COBALT, 188. The acetate method, 188. The ether method, 191.

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM, 193. The ether method, 194. Volumetric method, 194. *Barba's modification*, 195.

DETERMINATION OF ALUMINUM, 196. Stead's method, 196. Carnot's method, 197. Ether method, 198.

DETERMINATION OF ARSENIC 199

DETERMINATION OF TIN 200

DETERMINATION OF TUNGSTEN 201

DETERMINATION OF VANADIUM 202

DETERMINATION OF MOLYBDENUM, 205. In ferro-molybdenum, 206. Rapid method, 206.

DETERMINATION OF NITROGEN 207

DETERMINATION OF IRON 210

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF CHROME-TUNGSTEN STEELS . . . 211

DETERMINATION OF CARBON 211

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR 211

DETERMINATION OF SILICON AND TUNGSTEN 211

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS 212

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE 212

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM 212

DETERMINATION OF NICKEL, CHROMIUM AND MANGANESE 213

DETERMINATION OF VANADIUM, 213. Separation of Chromium and Vanadium 214

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF FERRO-TUNGSTEN AND TUNGSTEN METAL 215

DETERMINATION OF CARBON 215

DETERMINATION OF TUNGSTEN 215

DETERMINATION OF THE OTHER ELEMENTS 216

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR 216

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF FERRO-CHROME, FERRO-SILICON, AND FERRO-TITANIUM 217

DETERMINATION OF CARBON 217

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR 217

DETERMINATION OF SILICON 218

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS, 219. In ferro-chrome, 219. In ferro-silicon, 219. In ferro-titanium, 220.

PAGE.

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE 220

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM, 220. Gravimetric method, 220. Volumetric method 221

DETERMINATION OF IRON 221

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF IRON ORES 222

Remarks on sampling, 222. Determination of hygroscopic water, 223. Determination of total iron, 224. Methods of standardizing the solutions, 229. Determination of ferrous oxide, 233. Of sulphur, 237. Of phosphoric acid, 239. Of titanic acid, 241. Of manganese, 242. *Pattinson's method*, 244. Determination of manganese dioxide, 245. *Bunsen's method*, 246. *By ferrous sulphate*, 247.

DETERMINATION OF SILICA, ALUMINA, LIME, MAGNESIA, MANGANESE OXIDE, AND BARYTA 248

DETERMINATION OF SILICA, 256. Separation of alumina and ferric oxide, 257. DETERMINATION OF NICKEL, COBALT, ZINC, and MANGANESE, 260; of copper, lead, arsenic, and antimony, 261; of the alkalies, 264; of carbonic acid, 265; of combined water and carbon in carbonaceous matter, 267; of chromium, 270; of tungsten, 272; of vanadium, 272; of the specific gravity, 272.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF LIMESTONE 274

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF CLAY 278

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF SLAGS 283

METHOD FOR THE ANALYSIS OF FIRE-SANDS 287

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF COAL AND COKE 288

Proximate analysis, 288. Determination of volatile combustible matter, 289. Of ash, 290. Of fixed carbon, 290. Of sulphur, 290. *By Eschka's method*, 291.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORIC ACID, 293. Ultimate analysis, 294. Heating effect, 295.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF GASES 297

Collecting samples, 297. Reagents for the pipettes, 300. Analysis of the sample, 302.

DETERMINATION OF CARBONIC ACID, 304. Of oxygen, 304. Of carbonic oxide, 304. Of hydrogen, 305. Of methane, 307. Of nitrogen, 309. Example of calculation, 310.

TABLES 311

Table I. Atomic weights of the elements, 311. Table II. Table of factors, 312. Table III. Percentages of phosphorus and phosphoric acid for each milligramme of magnesium pyrophosphate, 314. Table IV. Tension of aqueous vapor, 315. Table V. Table for reducing volumes of gases to the normal state, 316.

INDEX 323

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THE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF IRON.

APPARATUS.

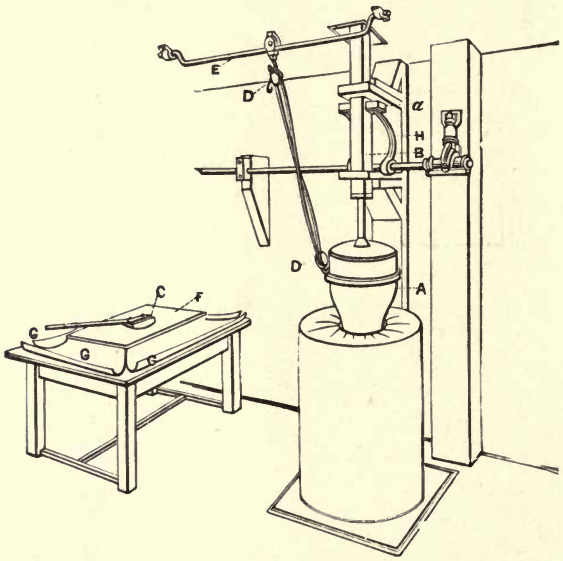
THE speed and facility with which results may be obtained, and often the accuracy of these results, are dependent upon various mechanical appliances as well as upon the skill of the analyst. These appliances will be considered under separate heads.

APPARATUS FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE SAMPLES.

For crushing iron ores, a mortar and pestle, such as are ordinarily used, have caused much trouble. In breaking up hard ores the wear, especially on the pestle, is considerable, and the particles of cast iron may cause the sample to yield too high a result in the determination of metallic iron. Of course, in non-magnetic ores these particles may be removed with a magnet, but in the case of magnetic or partly magnetic ores this cannot be done, and a hardened steel mortar and pestle should be used. The sample should be broken to about pea size, well mixed, and quartered, this quarter broken still finer, and mixed and quartered in the same way until the resulting portion is small enough to be bottled. The final grinding can be best done on a chilled-iron plate with a hardened steel muller. Except with unusually refractory ores, further grinding is unnecessary, but with such ores the final grinding must be in an agate mortar. In large laboratories and where many ores are analyzed, arrangements such as are shown in the accompanying sketches will prove very useful. Fig. 1 shows a steel mortar, the pestle worked by power, and a chilled plate and muller.

A is the mortar; B, a wooden stem in which the pestle fits. The cams H fit on the shaft and raise the pestle by means of the tappets *a*, which are faced with raw hide. An iron hoop shrunk on the mortar has a ring, in which is fastened the lower block of the pulley D; the upper block is attached to a traveller, E. When in use the mortar is covered with a leather cap, which prevents the pieces of ore from flying out of the mortar. To transfer the powdered ore to the chilled plate F, remove the leather cap, raise the pestle clear of the mortar, and fasten it up by a hook from the

FIG. 1.



framework to the tappet *a*. Raise the mortar by pulling the fall from the upper block and fastening the hook in its end into a ring at the lower block. By means of the traveller, run the mortar over the plate and turn the ore out. After quartering the sample down, finish the grinding on the chilled plate with the muller C. The sheet-iron troughs G serve to catch any ore that falls from the plate. In some laboratories a small Blake crusher is used for crushing the ore, but it is more liable to get out of order, and is not so easily cleaned as the mortar and pestle. Fig. 2 shows an arrangement for facilitating the final grinding in the agate mortar, in which the pestle is rotated by a Stow flexible shaft.

FIG. 2.

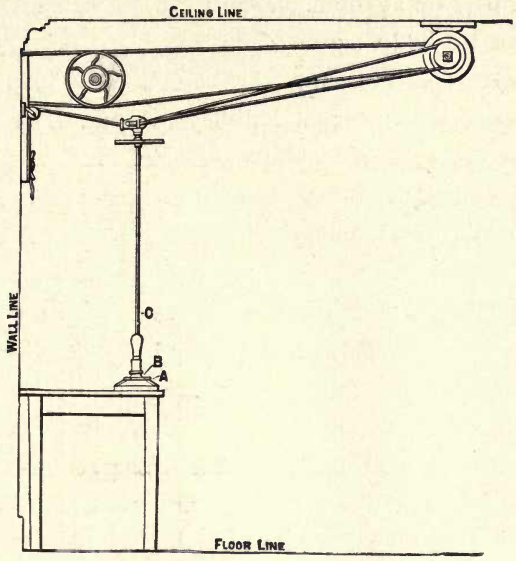
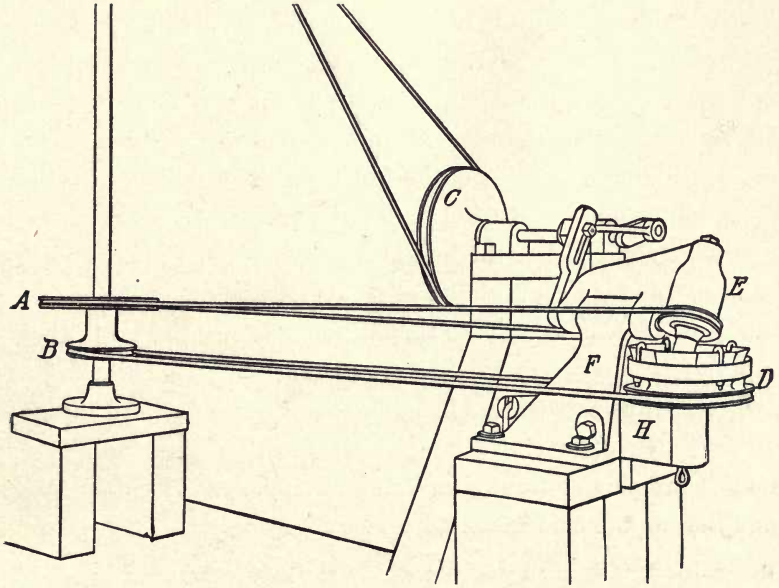


FIG. 3.



The apparatus shown in Fig. 3, designed by Mr. Maunsel White, has been in use several years at the chemical laboratory of the Bethlehem Iron Company, and has worked very satisfactorily. The power is applied from an overhead countershaft not shown in the cut. The lower portion of the vertical shaft carries two horizontal pulleys, A and B; these pulleys are connected, as shown, with the spindle carrying the pestle and with the circular box D, in which the mortar is securely fastened by four claw-bolts, which may be seen in the drawing.

The piece D is made with a spindle which extends down into a bearing in the supporting piece H. The piece H, which may be called a lever, is secured to the frame F by a bolt which passes through it, and around which it can be turned through an angle sufficient to permit of the easy emptying of the mortar without displacing the belt. A groove at the farther end of H, as shown, carries a weighted rod which supplies the pressure of the mortar against the pestle. The weights are made movable so that the pressure can be varied for special cases.

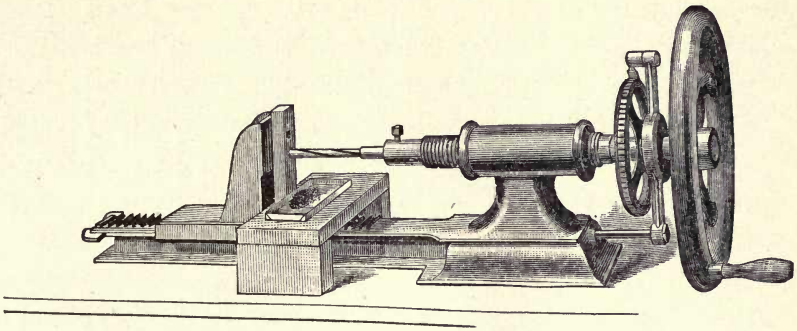
The agate pestle is secured in a brass spindle with a grooved collar for carrying the belt; this spindle revolves in a bored socket in the piece E, and is secured from dropping out by means of a small nut, shown at the top of the piece. The piece E is connected to the frame F by a circular bolt, the end of which is supplied with an arm for rocking the piece E; this obtains by fastening the bolt with dowel-pins where it passes through the piece E while free to move in the frame F. The pulley C is run from the countershaft, and revolves a small shaft whose end carries a crank connected by a short rod to the bolt-arm of the piece E, and supplies the power and means for the rocking motion.

It will now be seen that while the mortar revolves, the pestle, revolving more rapidly, sweeps across the face of the mortar by the rocking motion of the piece E, thus constantly changing the material between the grinding surfaces.

In taking samples of iron or steel, a perfectly clean dry drill should be used, and the utmost care taken to prevent grease, oil, or dirt of any kind from getting in the sample. With bar-iron or steel the scale on the outside of the piece should be removed as carefully as possible, the first

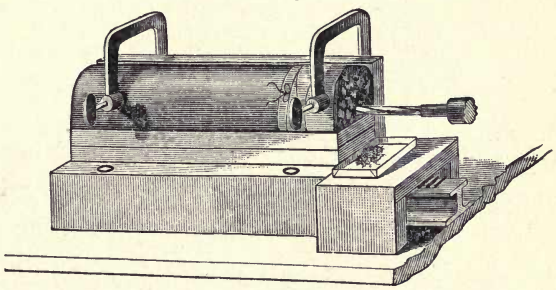
drillings from each hole thrown away, and the remainder thoroughly mixed and placed in a perfectly clean dry bottle. Fig. 4. shows a

FIG. 4.



convenient form of drill-press for the purpose. A half-inch Morse twist-drill is the best for general use. In taking samples of pig-iron, the loose sand should be carefully removed from the outside of the pig and a piece of stout paper wrapped around it to prevent the sand and slag from the outside getting mixed with the clean drillings, which are received on a piece of glazed paper turned up at the edges (Fig. 4). Drillings from pig-iron can be best mixed by rubbing them up in a small porcelain mortar. At blast-furnaces, to save the trouble of breaking pieces from the pigs the arrangement shown in Fig. 5 is very convenient, as half a pig can be placed in the press. The framework is securely bolted to the table on which the press stands, and the pig is secured by means of the iron clamps. By removing the pieces of wood under the pig it is lowered so that two or three holes can be bored in different parts of the face of the pig to get an average. By taking one pig from the first bed, one from the last, and one from an intermediate bed,

FIG. 5.

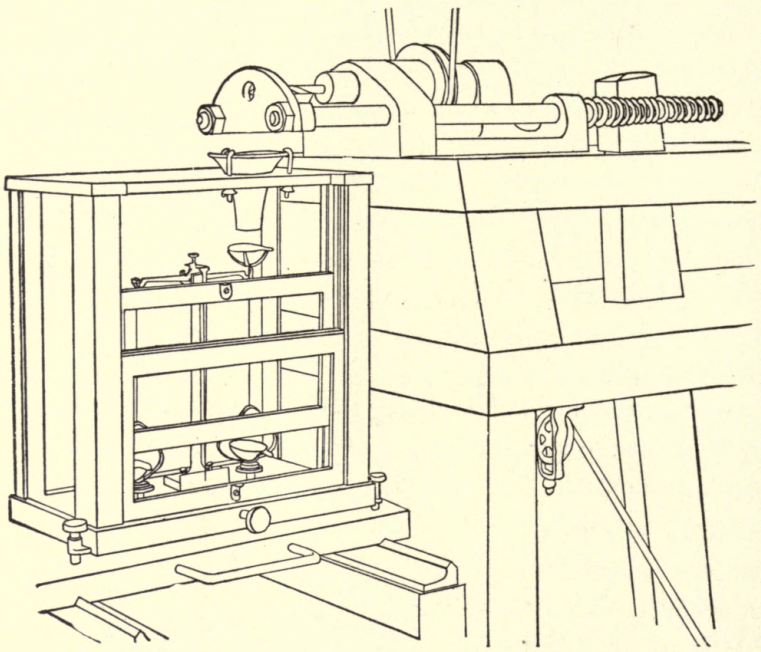


a good average of each cast may be obtained. When the ore varies, or when mixtures of different ores are used, these precautions are very necessary to get a sample that will really represent an average of the cast.

Drillings from large ingots must be taken by means of an ordinary brace.

Fig. 6 shows an apparatus for the drilling and weighing of samples of steel for colorimetric carbon or other rapid determinations, designed by

FIG. 6.



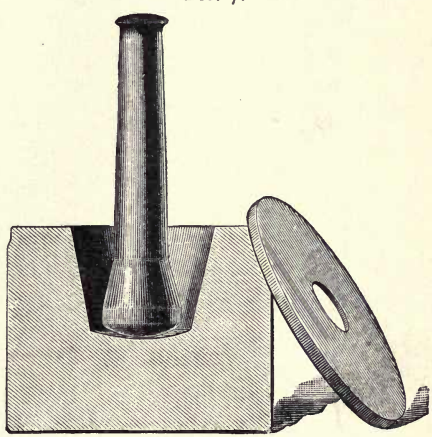
Mr. Maunsel White, and in use at the laboratory of the Bethlehem Iron Company. The drill is mounted above the balance, the point of the drill directly overhanging the balance-pan. The piece to be drilled is placed against the semicircular plate carried by the two rods that pass through the drill-frame; on the rear end of each rod is a coiled spring which supplies the pressure necessary for drilling. The rear ends of the rods are held together by a tie-piece, which is connected to a lever operated by the

foot, so that the rods and plate can be forced forward for the reception of the piece to be drilled.

The balance is supplied with an overhead pan which receives the drillings guided to it through the funnel fixed in the top of the balance-case for this purpose. When the pan falls, showing that sufficient sample has been drilled, pressure is applied to the lever by the foot and the piece taken out. The balance-case rests upon an iron plate grooved on the bottom; these grooves engage with guides screwed to the table and permit the balance-case to be pulled forward, which facilitates the cleaning of the funnel from all clinging particles. This operation is done with a camel's-hair brush or a feather. A magnet is run around in the lower pans to guard against the chance of falling particles interfering with the accuracy of the weights. The upper door of the balance-case is then lowered into the position shown in Fig. 6, which gives free access to the upper pan containing the sample. The sample is now accurately weighed, the pan lifted out, and the drillings transferred to the test-tube.

The use of a ¼-inch twist-drill has been adopted and found to give good results. The pans and funnel are aluminum and the bearings agate; the beam is short, 5½ inches in length, in consequence of which the weighing is done rapidly.

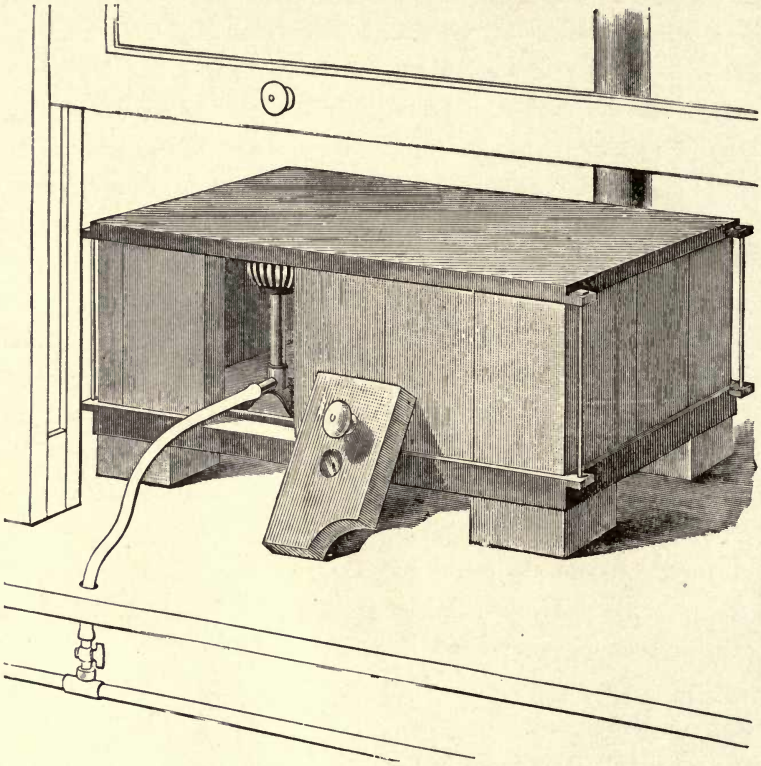
FIG. 7.



In taking samples of spiegel or of white-iron, small clean pieces from a number of pigs should be taken and powdered in a hardened steel mortar. The mortar shown in the sketch (Fig. 7) is forged from high carbon steel, hardened, and the temper drawn from the outside. This makes the mortar both hard and tough. The sheet-iron cover prevents the pieces from flying. The face of the pestle is very hard, and the handle comparatively soft, so that it will not break when struck by the hammer.

In taking samples for analysis, when the method used requires the sample to be in a fine state of subdivision, the very fine part of the sample

FIG. 8.



should never be separated from the coarser particles by a sieve or screen, but the sample should be mixed thoroughly, and a portion, fine and coarse together, taken and powdered, so that all may pass through the sieve.

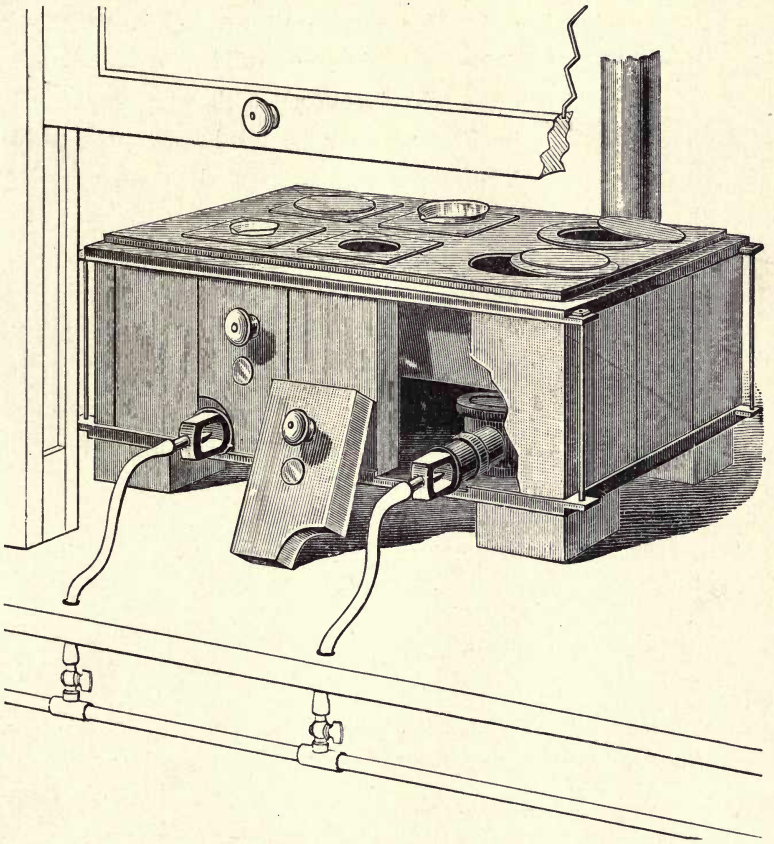
GENERAL LABORATORY APPARATUS.

Hot Plate and Air-Bath.

Fig. 8 shows a very convenient form of hot plate, and Fig. 9 an air-bath. This air-bath is made from an ordinary cast-iron sink, which is

supported on fire-bricks. The top is of asbestos board, with a piece of sheet-iron underneath to strengthen it. The holes are large enough to take the largest-sized beakers, while the smaller beakers are supported by asbestos rings. An ordinary gas-regulator or governor, which supplies

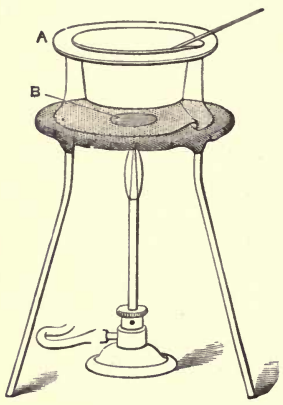
FIG. 9.



the gas at a constant pressure, keeps the temperature sufficiently uniform. Evaporations may thus be effected with great saving of time and with little danger of loss by spirting. The products of combustion of the gas are carried off by a separate flue, and the sulphuric acid formed does not come in contact with the solutions in the baths.

The hot plate is generally used instead of a sand-bath, the surface of the iron being kept clean and free from rust by an occasional coat of stove-polish. Evaporations on the hot plate may be hastened by standing the beaker containing the solution inside another beaker with the bottom cut off. Beakers may readily be cut in this way by starting a crack and leading it around with a red-hot iron or glass rod. For evaporating solutions in capsules or dishes a beaker cut off in this way and placed on a tripod covered with wire gauze, as shown in Fig. 10, may be used with great advantage. The capsule is supported on an asbestos ring, A, the bottom being about ½ inch (12 mm.) from the wire gauze. A piece of thin asbestos board, B, about ¾ inch (18 mm.) in diameter, rests on the gauze and covers the point of the flame of the Bunsen burner, and, by throwing the heat more on the sides of the capsule, tends to prevent spirting when the solution in the capsule gets thick and pasty.

FIG. 10.



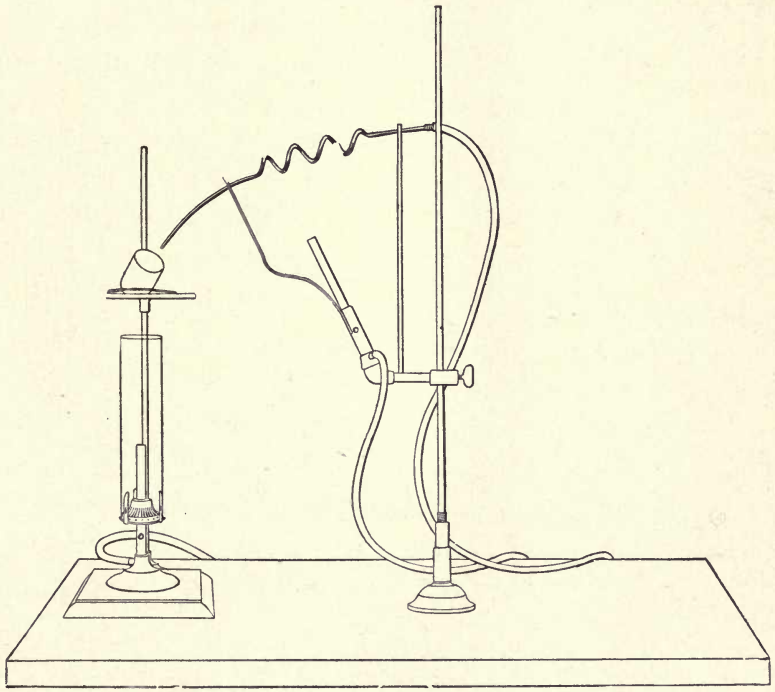
Apparatus for Hastening Evaporations

The little piece of apparatus shown in Fig. 11 was designed by Mr. J. E. Whitfield and is most useful in hastening evaporations. It consists of a platinum tube $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch in diameter, coiled above the burner to present more heating surface, through which passes a blast of air. As the platinum tube and Bunsen burner are both supported on the arm of the stand, the level of the tube may be made to accommodate itself to a crucible on a stand, to a capsule on a tripod (Fig. 10), or to a beaker on the air-bath. In the treatment of the insoluble residues, from ores by hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids it is quite invaluable, as it not only hastens the evaporation but prevents loss by spirting.

The blast of hot air breaks the bubbles on the surface of the liquid, and when properly directed it gives the liquid a rotary motion that tends

to throw onto the sides of the crucible any particles of the liquid thrown up by the bubbles. The amount of heat that can be applied to a crucible under these circumstances, without causing loss, is really surprising. It is equally useful when evaporating solutions in beakers on the air-bath or hot plate. In laboratories where a blast of air is always at command, the principle may be applied in many ways for hastening evaporations.

FIG. 11.



Even a cold blast of air from a drawn-out glass tube directed on the surface of a liquid hastens the evaporation very materially.

Igniting Precipitates.

For ignitions, a Bunsen burner with a ring to regulate the supply of air, provided with an ordinary glass chimney, as shown in Fig. 12, is most

convenient. By shutting off the air entirely a very low heat may be obtained, which is not rendered variable by air-currents, and the heat of the full flame of the burner is increased by the greater draft caused by the chimney and the perfect steadiness of the flame. By using a small platinum rod or wire to support the cover of the crucible, as shown in Fig. 12, a gentle current is induced in the crucible, which, while it greatly facilitates burning off carbon, is not sufficiently strong to cause loss by carrying off even the lightest ash. The crucible may also be inclined on its side, as in

FIG. 12.

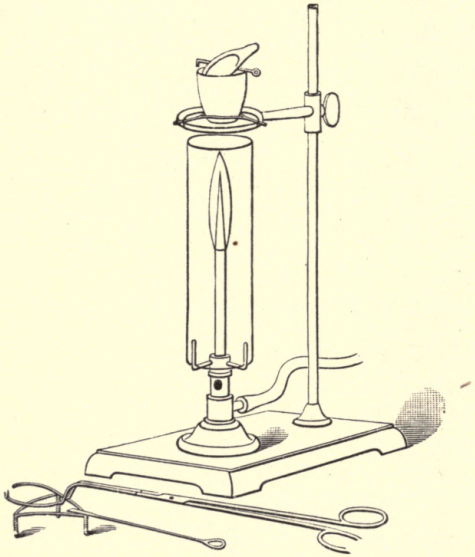


FIG. 13.

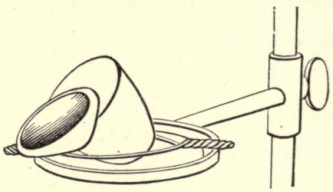


FIG. 14.

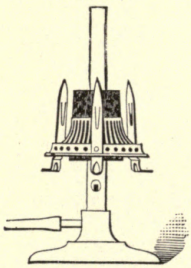


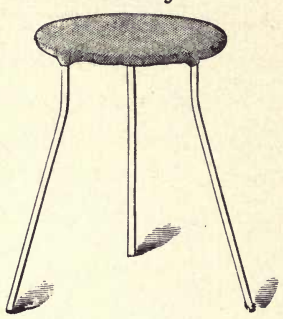
Fig. 13, the heat in this case being applied near the top of the crucible. Fig. 14 shows an easy method of fitting a chimney to a Bunsen burner by means of a cork and an ordinary Argand chimney-holder. When a higher temperature than that obtainable by a Bunsen burner is required, a blast-lamp, worked by a foot-bellows, by a water-blast, or by a small blower, is used.

Tripods.

The most convenient arrangement for heating liquids in beakers, flasks, etc., is the iron tripod (Fig. 15). It consists of a cast-iron ring with three

legs of heavy iron wire ¼ inch (6 mm.) in diameter. The ring is covered with brass wire gauze, 40 meshes to the inch, which can be replaced when it is burned out, but which lasts a long time. The vertical height of the tripod is about 7½ inches (191 mm.). A very convenient form of burner is the Finkner ratchet-burner, as the flame can be raised or lowered by means of the ratchet on the burner, thus avoiding the necessity of reaching back over the table to the gas-cock. As the air and gas are both turned off at once, there is less danger of the flame blowing out when it is turned very low.

FIG. 15.



Gasoline and Alcohol Lamps.

When illuminating gas is not obtainable for heating purposes, recourse must be had to gasoline or alcohol. If a gasoline gas machine is available it furnishes a fair substitute for ordinary illuminating gas, but special burners must be used. These will be found described in any dealer's catalogue. Sometimes, however, it is necessary to depend on gasoline alone as a source of heat, and in this event the best burner for general use is the Dangler lamp, which can be used for heating solutions and also for making ignitions and for fusions. This lamp is made on the principle of the plumber's torch or melting-pot.

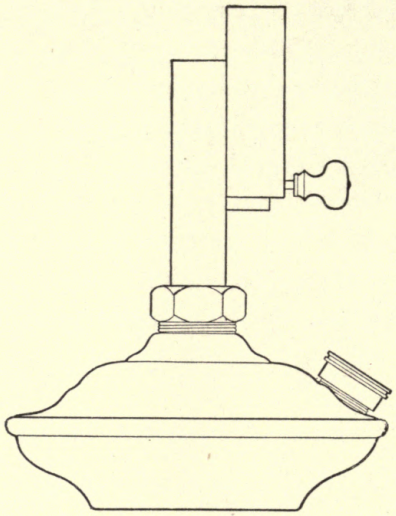
Alcohol is too expensive for general use for heating purposes, but for fusions for the determination of sulphur its use is advisable on account of the presence of sulphur compounds in gas. There are many patterns of alcohol lamps, among others Barthel's lamp of the form shown in the cut (Fig. 16) may be mentioned.

Muffles.

Some analysts prefer to make ignitions in a muffle, and where no gas is available it certainly offers many advantages.

Any good form of muffle-furnace heated by gasoline, coke, or coal may be used for this purpose, but the muffle should not be less than 4 or 5

FIG. 16.



inches in height. The waste heat may be used for a hot plate or an air-bath.

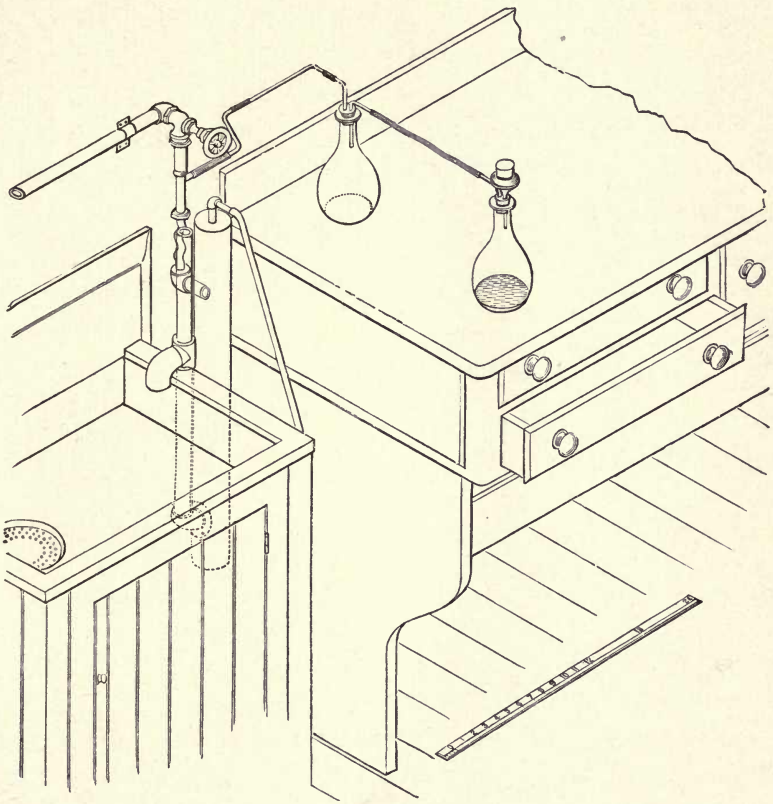
Filter-Pumps.

The use of filter-pumps for Bunsen's method of rapid filtration is now very general, and greatly facilitates many operations. The kind of pump is usually determined by the water-supply. With a good pressure of water, the most convenient form of pump is the injector. Fig. 17 shows the Richards injector united with an air-cylinder, from which a current of air sufficient for an ordinary blast-lamp may be obtained. When the pump is used for filtering strong solutions of nitric acid a glass injector may be used, and the water allowed to flow at once into the sink or waste-pipe. When the pressure of water is not great enough for an injector the Bunsen pump may be used, the vacuum obtained of course depending on the amount of fall. A tank with a ball-cock attachment makes this form of pump most convenient.

An ordinary air-pump may also be used for many purposes, but of

course is unsuitable for filtering corrosive liquids, such as nitric acid, unless a wash-bottle containing a caustic alkali is interposed between the flask and the air-pump. The apparatus shown in Fig. 18 will give a very

FIG. 17.



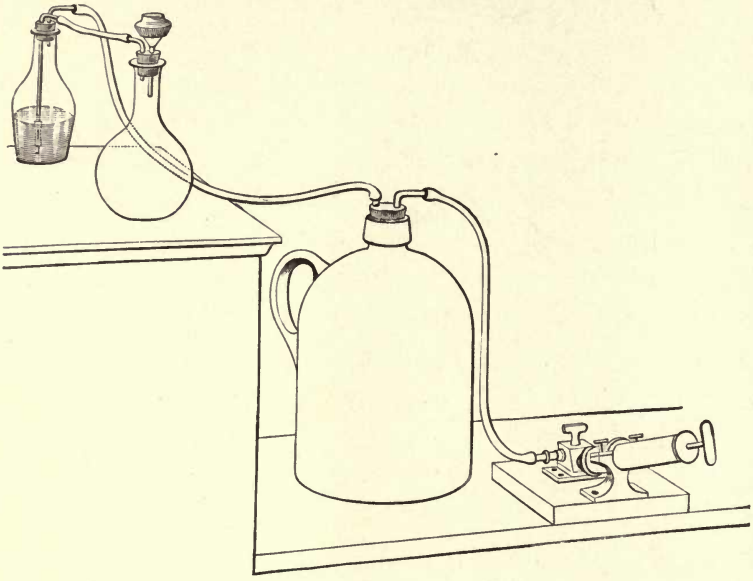
good idea of an arrangement which is very convenient when a water-supply is not available. The jug, which may be of three or five gallons' capacity, serves as a reservoir. It connects directly with the air-pump.

Bunsen's Method of Rapid Filtration.

This method is too widely known to make a detailed description necessary, but some hints in regard to the details may be useful. In the first place, it is very difficult to get good 60° funnels, so that the little perforated cones of platinum to support the point of the filter, which are

sold by chemical dealers, rarely fit the funnel, and when they do not fit, the filters are apt to tear. The small funnel of platinum foil, as recom-

FIG. 18.



mended by Bunsen, can be made to fit the funnel better, but the edges sometimes cut the filter. A small funnel of parchment pricked full of pin-holes, and of the size and shape of the platinum-foil funnel, works very well. It is a mistake to use too great a pressure, especially at first, and the filter should be kept full. The filtering-flask should always be connected, not with the vacuum-pipe directly, but with another flask fitted with a little Bunsen valve, which allows the air to pass into the vacuum-pipe, but, in case of a sudden stoppage in the pump, prevents the back pressure from entering the filtering-flask and blowing out the contents of the funnel.

FIG. 19.

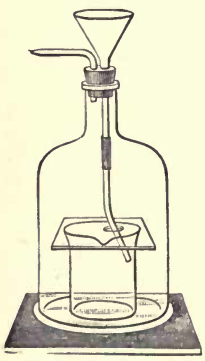


Fig. 19 shows an arrangement for filtering into a beaker instead of into a flask. It is necessary to have a glass cover over the beaker, as shown in the sketch, on account of the tendency the solu-

tion has to spatter, particles of the solution being carried out of the beaker in the current of air flowing into the vacuum-pipe.

Gooch's Method of Rapid Filtration.

The pierced crucible and cone, with asbestos felt, devised by Gooch,* are almost indispensable to the iron analyst for the proper and rapid execution of many operations, as will be seen by the frequent references to them in the descriptions of the methods given farther on. Fig. 20 shows the crucible and cap, and Fig. 21 the cone. The asbestos, which should be of a soft, silky, flexible fibre, is scraped longitudinally (not cut) to a fine, soft down, purified by boiling in strong hydrochloric acid, and washed thoroughly on the cone. It may be dried and kept in a bottle. The

FIG. 20.

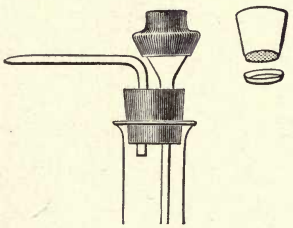


FIG. 21.

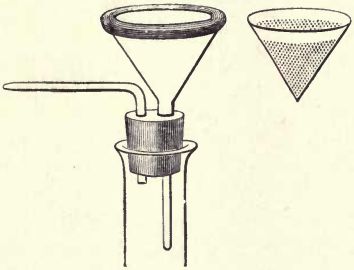
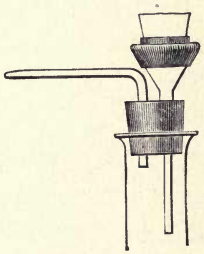


FIG. 22.

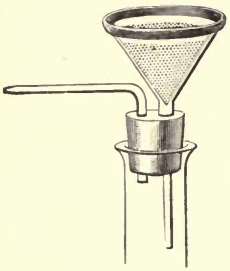


perforated crucible is placed in one end of a piece of soft rubber tubing, the other end of which is stretched over the top of a funnel, as shown in Figs. 20 and 22. The neck of the funnel passes through the stopper of a vacuum-flask. To prepare the felt, pour a little of the prepared asbestos suspended in water into the crucible and attach the pump. The asbestos at once assumes the condition of a firm, compact layer, which is washed with ease under the pressure of the pump. After washing the felt, suck it dry on the pump, remove the crucible, detach any little pieces of fibre that may be on the outside of the bottom of the crucible, slip on the little cap, dry, ignite, and weigh. Remove the cap, place the crucible in the rubber holder, start the pump, and pour the liquid and precipitate to be filtered into the crucible, wash, dry, ignite, if required, cool, and

* Proceedings Am. Acad. Arts and Sciences, 1878, p. 342 ; Chem. News, xxxvii. 181.

weigh as before. The cone is fitted to a funnel by means of a rubber band stretched over the top of the funnel. The pressure of the pump pulls the cone down so that the overlapping part of the band forms a tight joint between the cone and the upper part of the funnel (Fig. 23). The felt is prepared in the same manner as in the crucible. Fill the cone with the asbestos suspended in water, start the pump, press down the cone into the funnel, and, if necessary, pour in more of the asbestos, letting it run all around from the upper edge of the cone so as to fill all the holes and make a firm, cohesive layer all over the inside of the perforated portion of the cone. Wash it well with water and suck it dry. It will then be ready for use. The cone is not intended for use when the precipitate is to be weighed, but, as it presents a very large filtering surface, it is most useful for such precipitates as manganese dioxide precipitated by Ford's method, etc. In this case, when the precipitate has been washed and sucked dry, by removing the cone from the funnel and carefully separating the felt from the sides of the cone with a little piece of flattened platinum wire, it may be removed from the cone with the precipitate enclosed in it, and the whole mass transferred to a beaker or flask for resolution. The cones may be of various sizes; for ordinary use, a cone 1¾ inches (45 mm.) in diameter is very convenient. They may also be used with a paper filter. In both the crucibles and cones the holes should be very small, and drilled (not punched) as closely together as possible.

FIG. 23.

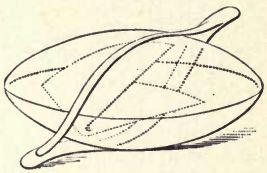


Counterpoised Filters.

The Gooch crucible and felt are most useful for weighing precipitates which are to be dried and not ignited, as in the direct weighing of the phospho-molybdate of ammonium. When they are not available, however, recourse must be had to counterpoised filters. The best method for preparing and using them is as follows. Take two washed filters of the same size and about the same thickness, fold them as if about to fit them in funnels, and, by cutting from the upper edge of the heavier of the two with a pair of scissors, make them nearly balance. Place them between a

pair of watch-glasses, as shown in Fig. 24, dry them at 100° C., and allow them to cool in a desiccator. Place one in each pan of the balance, and, handling them with a pair of forceps, clip them until they balance exactly. Place each filter in a funnel, filter the precipitate on one of them, pass the *clear* filtrate (not the washings) through the other, and wash them both in the same manner. Remove them from the funnels, turning over the top edges of the filter containing the precipitate to prevent any of the latter from falling out, place them in a watch-glass, dry them at 100° C. (or at the required temperature, whatever it may be), cover them with the other watch-glass, cool in a desiccator, place them on opposite pans of the balance, and the weight added to the pan containing the empty filter, to make them balance, is the weight of the precipitate.

FIG. 24.



Filter-Paper.

All filter-paper contains more or less inorganic matter, which remains, after burning the paper, as a white or brownish ash. The Swedish paper with the water-mark J. H. Munktell leaves the smallest amount of ash, and this ash contains from 35 to 65 per cent. silica, besides ferric oxide, alumina, lime, and magnesia in varying proportions.

Schleicher & Schull and Baker & Adamson prepare very pure filters by washing them with hydrochloric acid and hydrofluoric acid, and these should always be used for very accurate work. The commoner kinds of German paper contain much larger amounts of inorganic matter than the Swedish paper, which consists principally of calcium carbonate, but sometimes contains appreciable amounts of phosphates.

Washing-Bottles.

Figs. 25, 26, 27, and 28 represent different forms of washing-bottles. Fig. 25 shows a bottle for use with ether or acids. The stopper is of glass. For ordinary use that represented in Fig. 26 is the best. The neck is wrapped with thin asbestos board, covered with a piece of wash-leather or chamois, which is sewed to keep it from slipping. This is very necessary

when hot water is used. A piece of soft rubber tubing at A is more pleasant for the mouth than the glass, and after compressing the air in the flask the tube can be grasped with the teeth, thus keeping up the stream of water for some time without effort. It also prevents the lips from being

Fig. 25.

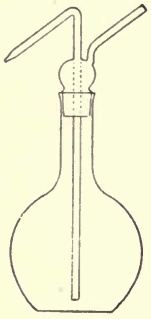


Fig. 26.

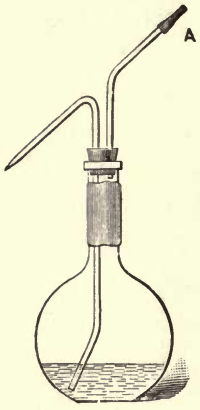


Fig. 27.

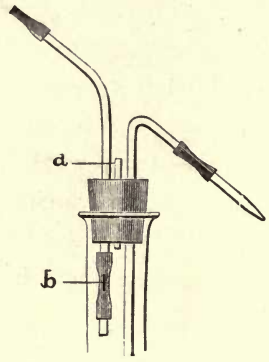


Fig. 28.

scalded when using very hot water. Fig. 27 shows a movable tip, which allows the stream of water to be directed by means of the finger. The form of flask shown in Fig. 27 is very convenient to use with ammonia-water, etc. The tube *a* is closed with the index finger, while the Bunsen valve *b* closing as soon as the air is compressed in the flask prevents the vapors from coming back into the mouth, and the stream of liquid is stopped instantly by removing the finger from *a*. Fig. 28 shows the Berzelius form, which is sometimes very useful. The air is compressed by blowing into the bottle through the jet, and by quickly inverting the bottle the stream of liquid is forced out until the equilibrium is restored. It requires a little practice to use this form of bottle easily, but when the art is once acquired it can be used with ammonia-water as well as pure water, and the facility with which it can be removed and pointed in any direction with the hand makes it most convenient for some purposes.

Removing Precipitates from Beakers.

A feather trimmed in the way shown in Fig. 29 may be used to remove particles of adhering precipitates from beakers, evaporating-dishes, etc.

A piece of soft rubber tubing on the end of a piece of glass rod or sealed glass tube is much more effective and convenient in most cases. It is made by taking a short length of rubber tubing, placing a little pure

FIG. 29.

FIG. 30.

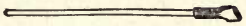
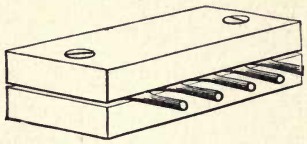


FIG. 31.

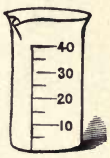


caoutchouc dissolved in chloroform or naphtha in one end, squeezing the sides together between two pieces of board (Fig. 31), and allowing it to remain for at least twenty-four hours. It may then be trimmed down and placed on the end of a piece of glass rod or on the end of a piece of glass tubing having the ends fused together (Fig. 30). This little instrument has acquired the name of "policeman."

Measuring-Glasses.

In adding reagents to a sample or to a solution, measured amounts should nearly always be used, and, as it is generally well under all circumstances to avoid adding them from the bottle direct, little beakers of the form shown in Fig. 32 are very useful. They can be graduated and marked by covering the side with a thin coating of paraffine, measuring in water from a burette, marking the levels and amounts in the paraffine with a sharp-pointed instrument, and etching them in the glass by filling the marks with hydrofluoric acid. After standing a few minutes the hydrofluoric acid may be washed off under the hydrant and the paraffine removed with hot water. As the amounts are intended to be only approximate, no great degree of care need be exercised in the graduation.

FIG. 32.



Caps for Reagent-Bottles.

The stoppers and lips of reagent-bottles are very apt to become covered with ammonium chloride, dust, etc., when exposed in the laboratory, and especially such as are not in constant use,—volumetric solutions, stock-

bottles, etc. It is well to keep them always covered with caps, which may be bought from the dealers, or with cracked beakers, which answer the purpose nearly as well in most cases.

Rubber Stoppers.

Rubber stoppers are now generally used instead of cork. Solid stoppers should always be purchased, and the holes cut with the ordinary cork-borers. This is readily done by moistening the cork-borer with water or alcohol. A little practice will enable any one to do this with great ease.

Desiccators.

Crucibles should always be cooled before weighing in desiccators. The form shown in Fig. 33 is most convenient. The desiccator should contain fused calcium chloride. The crucible rests on a small triangle, which may be made of copper wire, each side being covered by winding a thin strip of platinum foil around it to prevent the crucible from coming in contact with the copper, which may become more or less corroded.

FIG. 33.

PLATINUM APPARATUS.

Crucibles.

The shape of the crucible is of considerable importance as regards its wearing properties. Fig. 34 shows the best form for general use. A crucible 1½ inches (38 mm.) high, $1\frac{5}{16}$ inches (33½ mm.) wide at the top, with a capacity of 20 c.c., and weighing with the lid about 25 grammes, is well adapted for weighing the usual precipitates found in the course of iron analysis. For fusions a much larger crucible is necessary: one $1\frac{13}{16}$ inches (46 mm.) high, $1\frac{13}{16}$ inches (46 mm.) wide on top, with a capacity of 55 c.c., and weighing about 60 grammes, will be found convenient and serviceable. Pure platinum is the best metal for crucibles. The iridium alloy, at one

FIG. 34.

time so popular, has not been found to wear well. It is stiffer than the pure metal, but much more liable to crack. The endurance of a crucible depends very much upon the treatment it receives. The salts of easily reduced metals fusing at a low temperature, such as lead, tin, bismuth, antimony, etc., should never be ignited in platinum; besides these, the phosphoric acid in some phosphates is occasionally partly reduced, rendering the platinum very brittle. A platinum crucible should never be bent out of shape when it can be avoided, and a wooden plug exactly the shape of the crucible (Fig. 35) is very useful to straighten it on when it has been bent. It should always be carefully cleaned before use: the precipitate last ignited should be dissolved in acid if possible, and the crucible washed out with water, dried, ignited, and cooled in a desiccator before weighing. A precipitate of ferric oxide will sometimes stain a crucible very badly; this stain may be removed by allowing the crucible to stand with cold hydrochloric acid for twelve hours, and then warming it for a short time. Stains that are not removed by hydrochloric acid may be removed by fusing potassium bisulphate in the crucible, or by fusing sodium carbonate in it, dissolving in water, and then treating the crucible with hydrochloric acid. Whenever a crucible begins to look dull and tarnished it should be cleaned inside and out with very fine sea-sand (not sharp sand) by moistening the finger, dipping it in the sand, and rubbing the crucible with it. This method of cleaning decreases the weight of the crucible very slightly, the sea-sand burnishing without cutting the crucible. It is very convenient to have each crucible and its cover marked with a number, as shown in Fig. 34.

FIG. 35.

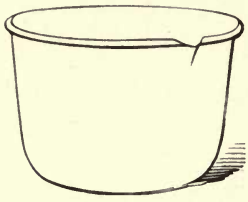
Dishes.

Fig. 36 shows a very convenient form of dish for the determination of silicon in pig-iron, silica in iron ores, etc. It is $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches (83 mm.) in diameter and $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches (57 mm.) high. Fig. 37 is for such work as precipitation of ferric oxide, etc. It is 5 inches (127 mm.) in diameter and $3\frac{5}{16}$ inches (84 mm.) high. The wire which is fused into the top of the dish

makes it much stiffer than it would otherwise be, and consequently it may be made lighter and cheaper than would be possible without the wire. The wire is hammered out and helps to form the lip. A platinum stirring-rod, formed from a piece of seamless tubing, rounded and fused together at the ends, is useful for many purposes. It may be from 5½ to 7 inches (140 to 179 mm.) long, ¼ inch (6 mm.) in diameter, weighing from 7.5 to 11 grammes.

FIG. 36.

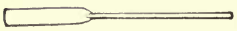
FIG. 37.



Spatula.

Fig. 38 shows a very convenient and useful form of spatula. The blade which is made of the platinum-iridium alloy, is fused into a tube of the same alloy which forms the handle. The weight of the spatula in the sketch is 14 grammes, length 6½ inches (165 mm.).

FIG. 38.



Triangles and Tripods.

The triangles for supporting the crucibles during the ignition are shown in Figs. 12 and 13, as are also tripods for holding the lids, etc. These are made from wire about $\frac{1}{16}$ inch (1.6 mm.) diameter, the ends are fused, and the wire, where it is twisted, has the parts in contact fused together almost to the inside of the triangle, which makes it much stiffer. The triangles should be attached to the iron rings of the supports with a few turns of fine platinum wire.

Crucible-Tongs.

Fig. 39 shows the best form of crucible-tongs. The part from *a* to *b* is of platinum, the straight part from *a* to *c* fitting over the end of the iron. The surfaces at *d* are in contact when the tongs are closed, and with this portion the lid can be handled, and the crucible is clasped by the curved ends, which hold it firmly without danger of bending the crucible. They are especially useful in handling a crucible containing a liquid fusion. Another form, shown in Fig. 40, is generally of brass, the points and bend

being lined with platinum. A small pair of forceps (Fig. 41) is useful for taking the crucible from the desiccator and placing it on the balance, the

FIG. 39.

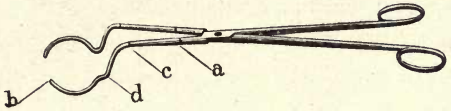


FIG. 40.

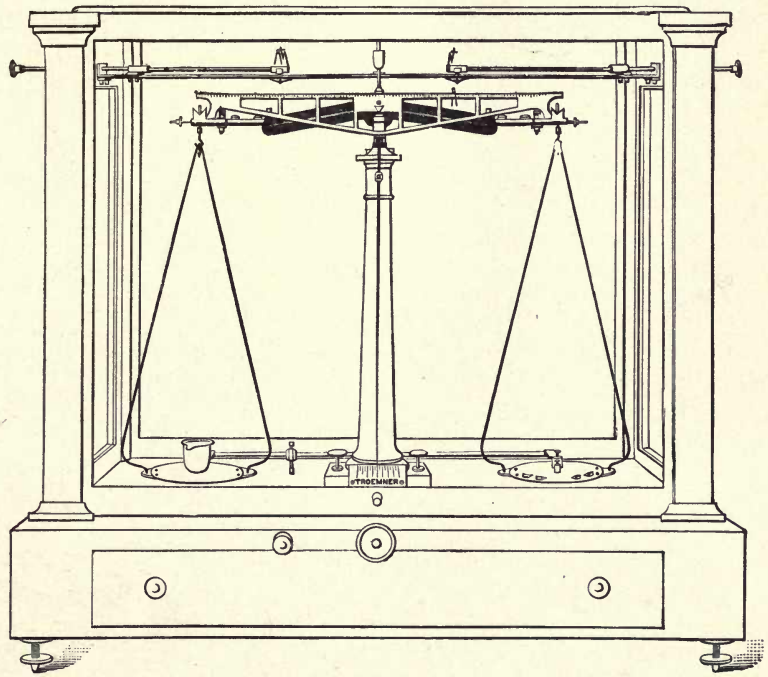
FIG. 41.

lid of the crucible being slipped a little to one side to allow one of the points of the forceps to go inside the crucible.

Balances.

The balance is one of the most important things in the equipment of a laboratory, and a cheap balance is nearly always a very poor investment.

FIG. 42.



The quality of balances has improved greatly in the last few years, and it is now possible to get a most admirable instrument of this kind at a com-

paratively low price. Fig. 42 shows a balance which for sensitiveness and quickness is unsurpassed. It is made to carry up to 200 grammes in each pan. The beam is of aluminum, as are also the pans. The stirrups are of nickel, the knife-edges and bearings of agate, while the arrangement for carrying the riders (Fig. 43) is most ingenious and effective. It is of course very convenient to have one balance for weighing crucibles, etc., and another for weighing samples for analysis. The balance for the latter purpose may be much smaller than the balance for the former, and should be provided with a small aluminum pan with a spout (Fig. 44), to facilitate the transfer of samples to flasks, test-tubes, etc. The pan should have a counterpoise. A pair of small forceps, slightly magnetized, may be used to advantage in getting exact weights of steel drillings, and a camel's-hair brush is necessary to detach small particles of ore, etc., from the aluminum pan or balanced watch-glasses.

FIG. 43.

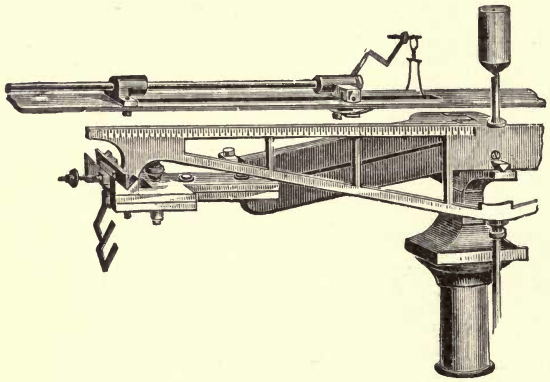


FIG. 44.

Factor Weights.

The use of factor weights is in many cases extremely convenient, as it does away with all calculation, and is to that extent time-saving and valuable in avoiding one source of error. Thus, in determining carbon by combustion in steel, using 2.7273 grammes of the steel, 0.1 milligramme of carbonic acid is equal to 0.001 per cent. of carbon in the steel. For determining silicon in pig-iron the ¼ factor weight, or 1.1755 grammes, is very

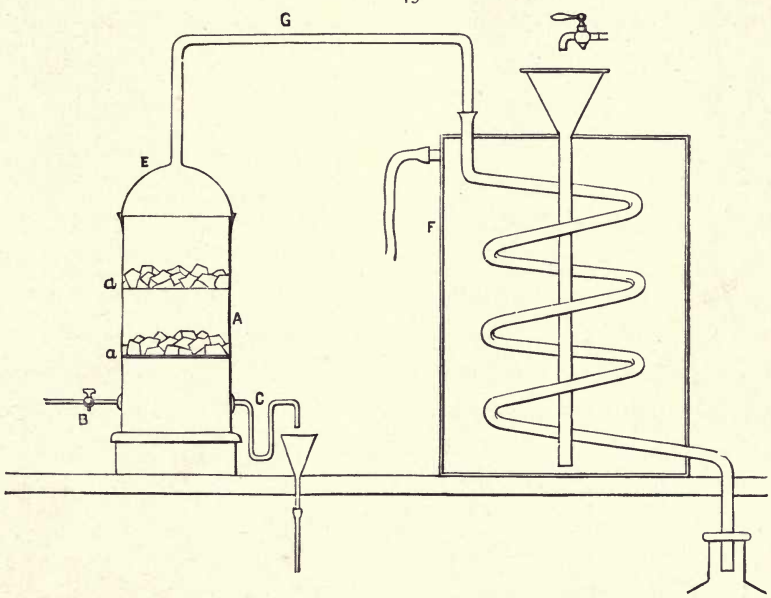
convenient. When the weight of silica is multiplied by 4, one milligramme is equal to 0.01 per cent. of silicon. Or, for rapid silicon determinations, the $\frac{1}{10}$ factor weight, 0.4702 gramme, is used.

REAGENTS.

Distilled Water.

When only a small amount of distilled water is needed, a tin-lined copper still and condenser, such as are furnished by all dealers, may be used, but where there is a supply of steam, an arrangement like that shown

FIG. 45.



in Fig. 45 will be found most useful. A is a tin-lined copper cylinder, with a dome-shaped top, E, fitted to A by the joint shown in the sketch, which may be made tight by paper or a linen rag. Two perforated shelves, *a*, *a*, support layers of clean quartz-gravel or pieces of block-tin, which wash the

steam and prevent dirt from being carried over mechanically. The steam enters at B, and the water condensed in the cylinder A passes off through the pipe C. The washed steam passes up through the block-tin pipe G, and is condensed in the worm-tub F. A glass worm should never be used, as the water condensed in it dissolves notable amounts of glass.

ACIDS AND HALOGENS.

Hydrochloric Acid. HCl. Sp. gr. 1.2.

Chemically pure hydrochloric acid is readily obtained. It should be free from chlorine, sulphuric and sulphurous acids, arsenic, and fixed salts. To test for sulphuric and sulphurous acids, evaporate 100 c.c. to dryness with a little pure potassium nitrate, redissolve in water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter, if necessary, and add barium chloride. To test for arsenic, put into a clean dry test-tube a few centigrammes of pure stannous chloride, pour in carefully 6 or 8 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and gradually 2 or 3 c.c. pure sulphuric acid, shaking the test-tube gently. If the hydrochloric acid is free from arsenic the solution remains clear and colorless, but if arsenic is present the solution becomes yellowish, then brownish, and finally metallic arsenic is deposited. The test-tube should be gently warmed if no reaction occurs at first. To test for chlorine, pour some of the acid into a solution of potassium iodide containing a little starch solution. A blue coloration indicates chlorine or ferric chloride. To test for metallic salts, neutralize about 100 c.c. of the acid with ammonia and add ammonium sulphide. To test for salts of the alkalies, evaporate about 100 c.c. of the acid to dryness, and test any residue which may remain.

Nitric Acid. HNO_3. Sp. gr. 1.41.

Nitric acid should be free from nitrous acid, the presence of which may be known by the yellowish color it produces. It may be freed from this gas by passing a current of air through the acid until it becomes colorless. To test for hydrochloric acid or chlorine, dilute largely and add a solution

of silver nitrate. To test for fixed salts, evaporate about 100 c.c. to dryness. The ordinary acid diluted with an equal volume of water gives the acid of 1.2 sp. gr. used to dissolve steel for the color carbon test. It should be carefully tested for chlorine and hydrochloric acid.

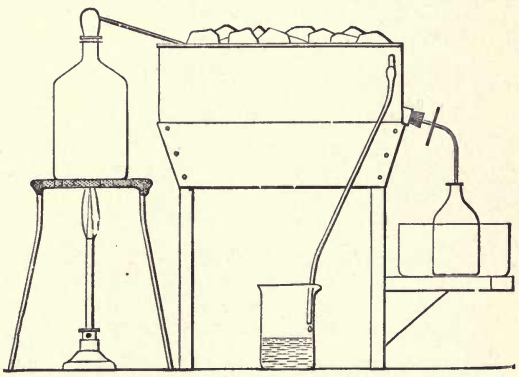
Sulphuric Acid. H_2SO_4. Sp. gr. 1.84.

Sulphuric acid should be colorless. To test for oxides of nitrogen, Warington * suggests placing about two pounds of the acid in a bottle, which it half fills, and shaking violently. The air washes the gases out of the acid, and the presence of the oxides of nitrogen may be detected by placing in the mouth of the bottle a piece of filter-paper saturated with potassium iodide and starch solution, which is colored blue when any of these oxides are present. To test for lead, supersaturate some of the acid with ammonia and add ammonium sulphide.

Hydrofluoric Acid. HFl.

The use of ceresine bottles, suggested by Prof. Edward Hart, of Lafayette College, has made it quite possible to obtain pure hydrofluoric acid, but the crude acid may be redistilled into platinum bottles in the laboratory. The crude acid, which may be purchased from glass engravers and etchers, is distilled from a platinum, silver, or lead still, as shown in Fig. 46. The head of the still and condensing-tube is of platinum. The condensing tube runs through a copper box filled with ice, and a platinum bottle receives the condensed acid. Where the tube comes through the lower part of the box it is secured by a rubber stopper, and a small bit of paper around the tube prevents any

FIG. 46.



* Crookes's Select Methods, 2d ed., p. 494.

condensed moisture on the outside of the tube from running into the bottle. Before distilling the acid, put into it a few crystals of potassium permanganate and a few c.c. of sulphuric acid. The redistilled acid should leave no residue upon evaporation.

Acetic Acid. $H,C_2H_3O_2 + Aq$. Sp. gr. 1.04.

Acetic acid of the strength given above is the best for use in iron analysis. It should give no residue on evaporation, and no precipitate upon neutralization with ammonia and the addition of ammonium sulphide. It should be free from phosphoric acid. To test it for phosphoric acid, evaporate 100 c.c. nearly to dryness, add a little magnesium mixture and a large excess of ammonia, cool in ice-water, and stir vigorously. When phosphoric acid is present, a precipitate of ammonium magnesium phosphate will be obtained.

Citric Acid. $H_3,C_6H_5O_7,H_2O$.

Citric acid is easily obtained in a state of purity in the form of crystals having the above composition. It should be kept in the solid condition, and dissolved as needed. It is soluble in ¾ part of water at 15° C.

Tartaric Acid. $H_2,C_4H_4O_6$.

Tartaric acid is also easily obtained sufficiently pure for use in iron analysis. The crystals should be dissolved only as needed. The only impurity is a small amount of lime. It is soluble in ½ part of water at 15° C.

Oxalic Acid. H_2,C_2O_4.

Oxalic acid crystallizes from its aqueous solution as $H_2,C_2O_4,2H_2O$, soluble in 8.7 parts of water at 15° C. It loses its water of hydration very easily even at the ordinary temperature in dry air, and very quickly at 100° C.

Bromine. Br.

Bromine is easily obtained in a condition sufficiently pure for use as a reagent. It is a dark brown, extremely corrosive liquid, of sp. gr. 2.97.

It is soluble in about 30 parts of water at 15° C. It is best kept in a glass-stoppered bottle with a ground cap. As the aqueous solution is generally used, it is convenient to put only a small amount—say 20 or 30 c.c.—in the bottle, fill the bottle nearly full of cold distilled water, shake it up well, and pour off the saturated solution as required. There usually remains in the bottom of the bottle a small amount of impurity, which is insoluble in water.

Iodine. I.

Iodine is a metallic-looking crystalline solid, of sp. gr. 4.95. Resublimed iodine is not sufficiently pure for use, and must be redistilled with great care, unless it is used as iodine dissolved in iodide of iron, and filtered. To distil it, place about ½ kilo. in a large glass retort of about 2 litres' capacity connected with an adapter about 18 inches (456 mm.) long and 3 inches (75 mm.) in diameter at the largest part. The heat from a Bunsen burner turned quite low will cause the violet vapors of iodine to pass rapidly into the adapter, where they will condense without any means being taken to cool it. By gently warming the outside of the adapter after the distillation has been finished, the iodine may readily be detached in large masses and removed. It should be kept in a wide-mouth, glass-stoppered bottle.

Chlorine. Cl.

Chlorine is a yellowish gas about two and one-half times heavier than air. It is sparingly soluble in water. When required it must be made. The details are given under "Determination of Silicon in Iron and Steel."

Sulphurous Acid. H_2SO_3.

To make sulphurous acid gas, mix powdered charcoal and strong sulphuric acid until a thin paste is formed, heat the paste in a flask, very gently at first, and pass the gas through a washing-bottle containing a little water. The reaction is $C + 2H_2SO_4 = CO_2 + 2SO_2 + 2H_2O$. The tube leading from the flask into the washing-bottle should have a bulb in it to prevent the reflux of water into the flask in case of sudden

cooling. Clippings of sheet copper, or copper turnings, may be used instead of charcoal, and are generally to be preferred. The best proportion is 250 grammes of copper to 500 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid. The aqueous solution of the gas is made by passing the washed gas into distilled water.

A very neat and inexpensive method of making saturated solutions of sulphurous acid is to buy the small cylinders containing about 20 ounces of liquefied gas each. One of these cylinders contains enough gas to saturate ten litres of water. They are closed with a small lead tube fused at the end. Straighten out the tube as far as possible, cut off the fused end and slip a piece of rubber tubing, connected with a washing-bottle, over it and allow the gas to flow through. The gas, SO_2, has a specific gravity of 2.21 (air = 1). 1 c.c. of water at 15° C. dissolves 0.1353 gramme of SO_2.

Chromic Acid. CrO_3.

Chromic anhydride as a red powder or in the form of scarlet crystals is easily obtained in a state of purity. It is deliquescent, and dissolves in a small quantity of water, forming a dark brownish-colored liquid. It may be made by pouring 1 volume of a saturated solution of potassium bichromate into 1½ volumes of strong sulphuric acid, stirring constantly. The liquid on cooling deposits needles of chromic anhydride, which must be separated from the mother-liquid and purified by recrystallization.

GASES.

Carbon Dioxide. Carbonic Acid Gas. CO_2.

The best form of generator is shown in Fig. 47. It was first suggested by Casamajor.* It consists of a large tubulated bottle, the bottom of which is covered to the depth of about 1 inch (25 mm.) with buckshot, on top of which rest lumps of marble. Dilute hydrochloric acid (1 acid to 5 water) is admitted through the tube which enters at the tubulure at the bottom of the bottle, bending down so as to reach the bottom of the bottle. The wash-bottle A contains water. By blowing in the rubber tube

* American Chemist, vi. 209.

attached to the acid-bottle the acid passes over into the tubulated bottle. When the stopcock K is closed, the pressure in the tubulated bottle forces the acid back into the acid-bottle. When the acid becomes exhausted and remains in the tubulated bottle, pour a little strong hydrochloric acid into the acid-bottle and blow it over into the tubulated bottle. The generated gas will force the liquid back into the acid-bottle, when it can be replaced by fresh acid. A slightly different form is shown in Fig. 50.

Hydrogen Sulphide Gas. H_2S.

The same form of apparatus is used for generating hydrogen sulphide. Ferrous sulphide is substituted for marble, but hydrochloric acid is used instead of sulphuric acid, as is generally advised, for the ferrous sulphate formed crystallizes out and clogs the apparatus.

Hydrogen. H.

The same form of apparatus as that used for carbonic acid and hydrogen sulphide can be used to advantage for generating hydrogen gas. Pieces of zinc, which may be obtained by melting the zinc and pouring it in a sheet about ¼ inch (6 mm.) thick, so that it can easily be broken, are to be used, and not granulated zinc. Hydrochloric acid is better than sulphuric.

Oxygen Gas. O.

Oxygen compressed in cylinders can be obtained from most dealers in chemicals, but it should always be carefully tested before being used for the determination of carbon in steel or iron, as the cylinders are sometimes filled with coal-gas, and a cylinder which has once held coal-gas is rarely free from hydrocarbons.

The gas may be made on a small scale in the laboratory by carefully mixing in a porcelain mortar 100 grammes potassium chlorate and 5 grammes powdered manganese dioxide, transferring to a retort, which the mixture should not more than half fill, and heating carefully over a Bunsen burner. The evolved gas may be collected in a gas-holder or in an india-rubber bag. The latter is not to be recommended for use for carbon determinations, as rubber is very liable to give off hydrocarbons.

ALKALIES AND ALKALINE SALTS.

Ammonium Hydroxide. Ammonia. NH_4HO.

The solution of ammonia gas (NH_3) commonly used is of sp. gr. 0.88, and contains about 30 to 35 per cent. of ammonia. It should be kept in glass-stoppered bottles and in a cool place, as the gas passes off very rapidly even at the ordinary temperature when open to the air. It should be colorless, leave no residue upon evaporation, be free from chlorides and sulphates, and give no precipitate with hydrogen sulphide.

Ammonium Bisulphite. NH_4HSO_3.

Ammonium bisulphite is made by passing sulphurous acid gas into strong ammonia until the solution becomes yellowish in color and smells strongly of sulphurous acid. By the first method of manufacture of sulphurous acid given on page 41, a large amount of carbonic acid is formed at the same time, which is absorbed by the ammonia. This is gradually displaced by the sulphurous acid, and, if the solution is kept cool, white crystals of the neutral sulphite, $(NH_4)_2SO_3H_2O$, are deposited. These are gradually dissolved by the excess of sulphurous acid until the solution becomes quite clear, assuming a yellowish tint. When copper is used instead of charcoal, no carbonic acid is evolved and no ammonium carbonate is formed. The cylinders of liquefied gas mentioned on page 42 may be used for this purpose. One cylinder will saturate about one litre of strong ammonia. By exposure to air ammonium bisulphite is gradually oxidized to sulphate. Old ammonium bisulphite always contains a small amount of hyposulphite, which occasions a precipitate of sulphur when deoxidizing solutions of ferric salts. It is not now difficult to purchase pure ammonium bisulphite, but sodium bisulphite is very apt to contain phosphoric acid. When made from strong ammonia-water, 18 c.c. of bisulphite will deoxidize a solution of 10 grammes of iron or steel.

Ammonium Sulphydrate. Ammonium Sulphide. $(NH_4)_2S$.

Ammonium sulphide is made by saturating strong ammonia with hydrogen sulphide and adding an equal volume of ammonia. The reactions are

$$NH_4HO + H_2S = NH_4HS + H_2O \text{ and}$$
$$NH_4HS + NH_4HO = (NH_4)_2S + H_2O.$$

The solution becomes yellow by age or by exposure to the air.

Ammonium Chloride. NH_4Cl.

Ammonium chloride is a white, crystalline, anhydrous salt, soluble in about its own weight of water at 100° C., and in 2.7 parts of water at 18° C. It volatilizes when heated without previous fusion. The salt is usually purified by sublimation. It generally contains a little iron, but is free from other impurities. To prepare ammonium chloride for use in J. Lawrence Smith's method for decomposition of silicates, dissolve it in boiling water and evaporate down on a water-bath or air-bath. When the salt begins to crystallize out, stir vigorously. The crystals formed will be very small. Drain off the liquid and dry. The salt can then readily be powdered.

Ammonium Nitrate. NH_4NO_3.

Ammonium nitrate is a white, crystalline salt, soluble in one-half its weight of water at 18° C., and in much less at 100° C. When dissolved in water it produces great cold. By evaporation it loses ammonia and becomes acid. When heated it fuses at 108° C., and is decomposed between 230° C. and 250° C. into water and nitrous oxide, $NH_4NO_3 = 2H_2O + N_2O$. It should leave no residue when volatilized.

Ammonium Fluoride. NH_4Fl.

Ammonium fluoride may be made by saturating hydrofluoric acid by ammonia. The salt crystallizes when left to evaporate over quicklime. It is slightly deliquescent, and therefore difficult to keep, as the solution attacks glass.

Ammonium Acetate. $NH_4C_2H_3O_2$.

Ammonium acetate is best made by slightly acidulating ammonia by acetic acid. One volume of strong ammonia-water requires about 2 volumes of acetic acid, 1.04 sp. gr., to neutralize it. It is best to make it as needed, as it decomposes when kept.

Ammonium Oxalate. $(NH_4)_2C_2O_4 + H_2O$.

Ammonium oxalate is a white salt, crystallizing in long prisms united in tufts. It is soluble in 20 parts of water at 18° C.

Sodium Hydroxide. Caustic Soda. NaHO.

Fused sodium hydroxide purified by alcohol is sufficiently pure for ordinary purposes. It forms white opaque masses, having a strong affinity for water. It dissolves in water with evolution of heat. Pure sodium hydroxide is prepared by allowing metallic sodium to decompose water in a platinum dish. It must be kept in a silver or platinum bottle, as the solution acts very rapidly on glass.

Sodium-Ammonium Phosphate. Microcosmic Salt. $NaNH_4HPO_4,4H_2O$.

Sodium-ammonium phosphate (microcosmic salt) is a white, crystalline salt, soluble in 6 parts of cold and 1 part of hot water. It should not be kept in solution for any great length of time, as it attacks glass very readily. It loses its water of crystallization very easily, and when heated gives off its ammonia, leaving pure sodium metaphosphate, which in the fused condition dissolves metallic oxides in many cases with the production of characteristic colors, which makes it a valuable reagent for blow-pipe analysis. It is easily obtained in a state of purity.

Sodium Carbonate. Na_2CO_3.

Sodium carbonate is never quite pure. It always contains small amounts of silica, alumina, lime, and magnesia, besides sulphuric acid. It may generally be obtained quite free from phosphoric acid. Every lot should be carefully examined for all the above impurities, and the amount per gramme noted, so that the proper subtraction may be made in each analysis. It is used in solution only for the neutralization of solutions, as in the determination of manganese by the acetate method, and, as the solution attacks glass very rapidly, it is best to dissolve the salt only as it is needed.

Sodium Nitrate. $NaNO_3$.

Sodium nitrate is used occasionally instead of potassium nitrate in making fusions of ores containing titanic acid. It may be prepared by acidulating a strong solution of sodium carbonate with nitric acid, heating until the water and excess of nitric acid are driven off, and powdering the dry salt.

Sodium Hyposulphite. Sodium Thiosulphate. $Na_2S_2O_3 + 5H_2O$.

Sodium hyposulphite is very soluble in water, but decomposes even in tightly stoppered bottles, sodium sulphate being formed and sulphur precipitated. It should, therefore, be dissolved only as used.

Sodium Acetate. $NaC_2H_3O_2 + 3H_2O$.

Crystallized sodium acetate dissolves in 3.9 parts of water at 6° C. It is rarely quite pure, containing, usually, calcium and iron salts, but it may be used after solution and filtration for partial analyses, as in the determination of manganese by the acetate method, etc. In complete analyses it is better to use ammonium acetate. When the use of sodium acetate is unavoidable, it can be made by dissolving C. P. sodium carbonate in acetic acid, boiling off the liberated carbonic acid, and adding acetic acid to slight acid reaction.

Potassium Hydroxide. Caustic Potash. KHO.

Potassium hydroxide purified by solution in alcohol, filtration, and subsequent evaporation to dryness and fusion, is quite pure enough for all the ordinary purposes of iron analysis. An aqueous solution of 1.27 sp. gr. is used to absorb carbonic acid in the determination of carbon in iron and steel, in the determination of carbonic acid in ores, etc. 300 grammes of fused potassium hydroxide dissolved in 1 litre of water will give a solution of about this strength.

Potassium Nitrite. KNO_2.

Potassium nitrite is used to separate nickel and cobalt. It is difficult to buy the pure salt, but it is easily made as follows. Heat 1 part of

potassium nitrate in an iron dish until it is just fused, then add, with constant stirring, 2 parts of metallic lead. Raise the heat slightly to complete the oxidation of the lead, and allow the mass to cool. Treat the mass with water, filter from the lead oxide, pass carbon dioxide through the solution to precipitate the greater part of the dissolved lead oxide, and filter. To the filtrate add a little ammonium sulphide to precipitate the last traces of lead, filter, evaporate to dryness, and fuse in a platinum dish to decompose any hyposulphite that may have been formed, and preserve the fused salt for use. Potassium nitrite is deliquescent.

Potassium Nitrate. KNO_3.

Potassium nitrate is a white, crystalline salt, anhydrous, and soluble in 7½ parts of water at 0° C., and in 0.4 part of water at 100° C. It melts below a red heat to a colorless liquid, and at a red heat gives off oxygen gas more or less contaminated by nitrogen, being converted into potassium nitrite and potassium oxide. The salt may be purchased in a sufficient state of purity for all purposes of iron analysis, but, as it may contain small amounts of sulphuric acid, the amount should always be determined and the proper allowance made when it is to be used for the estimation of sulphur in ores.

Potassium Sulphide. K_2S.

Potassium sulphide is made by passing hydrogen sulphide into a solution of caustic potash and filtering from any precipitated alumina or ferrous sulphide. It is used instead of the corresponding ammonia-salt when the solution contains copper, as copper sulphide is slightly soluble in ammonium sulphide.

Potassium Bichromate. $K_2Cr_2O_7$.

Potassium bichromate is an orange-colored, anhydrous, crystalline salt, soluble in 20 parts of water at 0° C., and in 1 part of water at 100° C. It melts below a red heat to a transparent red liquid, crumbling to powder upon cooling. Heated with strong sulphuric acid it gives off

about one-sixth its weight of oxygen gas, the reaction being $K_2Cr_2O_7 + 4H_2SO_4 = Cr_2K_2(SO_4)_4 + 4H_2O + 3O$. It is readily obtained in a state of purity, but should always be fused to destroy any organic matter before being used to determine carbon in iron or in ores.

Potassium Chlorate. $KClO_3$.

Potassium chlorate is a white, crystalline, anhydrous salt. It is soluble in about 30 parts of water at 0° C., and in about 2 parts at 100° C. It is readily decomposed by heat, first into a mixture of potassium chloride and perchlorate, a portion of the oxygen being set free, and at a higher temperature the perchlorate is decomposed, the remaining oxygen is given off and potassium chloride alone remains. It is easily obtained in a sufficient state of purity for use in iron analysis. Heated with nitric acid it yields potassium nitrate and perchlorate, water, chlorine, and oxygen, thus:

$$8KClO_3 + 6HNO_3 = 6KNO_3 + 2KClO_4 + 6Cl + 13O + 3H_2O.$$

Heated with hydrochloric acid it gives potassium chloride, water, and a mixture of chlorine peroxide and chlorine, called *euchlorine*, thus:

$$4KClO_3 + 12HCl = 4KCl + 6H_2O + 3ClO_2 + 9Cl.$$

Potassium Bisulphate. $KHSO_4$.

Potassium bisulphate is a white, crystalline salt, soluble in about one-half its weight of boiling water. A large amount of water decomposes it into potassium sulphate and free sulphuric acid; even in the presence of a large excess of sulphuric acid the neutral salt crystallizes out, leaving free sulphuric acid in the solution. Potassium bisulphate melts at 197° C.; at higher temperatures it gives off water, leaving the anhydrous salt, and at a red heat it gives off sulphuric acid, leaving the neutral sulphate. It is difficult to obtain it very pure, but it may be made as follows. Dissolve potassium bicarbonate in water, filter, and from a graduated vessel add sulphuric acid until, after boiling off the liberated carbonic acid, the solution is neutral, or but very faintly alkaline to test-paper. Filter, if necessary, and to the filtrate add as much sulphuric acid as was added

in the first place to neutralize the bicarbonate. Boil the solution down, and finally fuse the mass in a platinum dish. Cool it, and when it is almost ready to solidify pour it into another dish. Break it up, and preserve it in glass-stoppered bottles.

Potassium Iodide. KI.

Potassium iodide is a white, crystalline, anhydrous salt, very soluble in water, and in dissolving it causes a fall of temperature in the solution. It is soluble in about 0.8 part of water at 0° C., and in 0.5 part of water at 100° C. It is soluble in 6 parts of alcohol at the ordinary temperature, and, when dissolved, if the addition of hydrochloric acid does not turn it brown, it is free from iodate. A solution of 1 part of potassium iodide in 2 parts of water will dissolve 2 parts of iodine, but upon dilution some of the iodine is precipitated.

Potassium Permanganate. $KMno_4$ (or $K_2Mn_2O_8$).

Potassium permanganate is a dark purple-red, anhydrous salt, crystallizing in long needles. It is soluble in 16 parts of water at 15° C. It is easily obtained very pure, but the solution should always be filtered through ignited asbestos, as paper has a strong reducing action on it.

Potassium Ferrocyanide. $K_4Fe_2Cy_6 + 3H_2O$.

Potassium ferrocyanide is a yellow, crystalline salt, soluble in 4 parts of water at 0° C., and in .2 parts of water at 100° C. It is used as a reagent to show the presence of ferric salts, which produce a blue coloration, caused by the formation of ferric ferrocyanide (Prussian blue).

Potassium Ferricyanide. $K_3Fe_2Cy_6$.

Potassium ferricyanide is a blood-red, anhydrous, crystalline salt, soluble in about 3.1 parts of water at 0° C., and in 1.3 parts of water at 100° C. The dilute solution, like that of the ferrocyanide, is yellow in color. Ferrous salts added to the solution give a blue coloration, due to the formation of ferrous ferricyanide, while ferric salts produce no change of color. The ferricyanide should never be kept in solution.

SALTS OF ALKALINE EARTHS.

Barium Carbonate. $BaCO_3$.

Barium carbonate prepared by precipitation is a soft white powder. It is difficult to obtain in a state of purity, but it is easily prepared by adding a solution of ammonium carbonate to a clear boiling solution of barium chloride, and washing the precipitated barium carbonate with hot water, first by decantation and afterwards on a filter. The ammonium carbonate should, of course, be free from sulphate. The thoroughly washed barium carbonate should be transferred to a bottle and shaken up with water, in which condition it is ready for use. Barium carbonate is very slightly soluble in water, requiring, according to the different authorities, from 4,000 to 25,000 parts of water to dissolve it. It is poisonous.

Barium Acetate. $Ba(C_2H_3O_2)_2$.

Barium acetate may be prepared by dissolving pure barium carbonate in acetic acid. It crystallizes with 1 or 3 molecules of water, but dried at 0° C., or exposed to the air, it effloresces and yields the anhydrous salt as a white powder. It is very soluble in water, dissolving in about 2 parts of water at 0° C., and in about 1 part at 100° C. When heated it decomposes into acetone and barium carbonate, thus:

$$Ba(C_2H_3O_2)_2 = C_3H_6O + BaCO_3.$$

Barium Chloride. $BaCl_2,2H_2O$.

Barium chloride is a white, crystalline salt, soluble in about 3 parts of water at 15° C., and in about 1½ parts at 100° C. Heated to 100° C. it loses its water of crystallization, yielding the anhydride as a white mass, which melts at a full red heat. Barium chloride is almost insoluble in strong hydrochloric acid. It is used almost exclusively for the determination of sulphuric acid, and may be kept in solution for this purpose. 100 grammes of the crystallized salt dissolved in 1 litre of water is a good proportion to use. Of this solution 10 c.c. will precipitate 1.16 grammes of barium sulphate, equal to 0.4 gramme sulphuric anhydride or 0.16 gramme sulphur.

Caustic Baryta. Barium Hydroxide. $BaH_2O_2,8H_2O$.

Barium hydroxide is a white, crystalline salt, soluble in 20 parts of water at 15° C., and in 3 parts of water at 100° C. The anhydride may be prepared by heating barium nitrate to redness in a platinum crucible, raising the heat gradually at first to avoid loss from frothing. It attacks platinum, however, at a high temperature. The solution has a strong affinity for carbonic acid, absorbing it readily from the air, the barium carbonate so formed causing a scum on the surface of the solution. The solution attacks glass very strongly.

Calcium Chloride. $CaCl_2$.

Crystallized calcium chloride loses all its water of crystallization at 200° C., yielding the white porous anhydrous chloride, which is very deliquescent. The anhydrous salt fuses at a low red heat, but is partly changed to oxide. For this reason the fused salt should never be used for drying carbonic acid gas in the determination of this gas, as some of it is taken up by the calcium oxide. A solution of calcium chloride containing 59 parts of the anhydrous salt to 100 parts of water boils at 115° C., a saturated solution at 179.5° C.

Calcium Carbonate. $CaCO_3$.

Pure calcium carbonate, for use in Prof. J. Lawrence Smith's method for the determination of alkalies in silicates, is prepared as follows. Dissolve marble or calcite, free from magnesia, in dilute hydrochloric acid, add an excess of powdered marble, heat the solution, and add some milk of lime to precipitate magnesia, calcium phosphate, etc. Filter, heat the solution almost to boiling, and precipitate by ammonium carbonate. The calcium carbonate formed is a very dense powder, which settles readily and is easily washed. Wash thoroughly, dry, and preserve for use.

METALS AND METALLIC SALTS.

Metallic Copper.

Metallic copper absorbs chlorine gas at ordinary temperatures, and is used in iron analysis to absorb any chlorine that may be given off during the combustion of the carbonaceous matter liberated by the action of solvents on iron and steel. It is used in the form of drillings, which should be taken with a perfectly dry drill, and which should be free from oil and grease. The drillings should be kept in a stoppered bottle, and may be used as long as they are perfectly bright and clean.

Cupric Sulphate. $CuSO_4,5H_2O$.

Cupric sulphate is a blue, crystalline salt, soluble in 2.7 parts of water at 18° C., and in 0.55 part of water at 100° C. The aqueous solution of the neutral salt is strongly acid to litmus-paper. The crystals of cupric sulphate effloresce on the surface when exposed to the air; heated to 100° C. they lose 4 molecules of water, and when heated to 200° C. they lose the remaining molecule. The anhydrous salt is a white saline mass, which is decomposed at a bright red heat, giving off sulphurous acid and oxygen and leaving cupric oxide. The anhydrous salt has a strong affinity for water, and also for hydrochloric acid gas. A solution of cupric sulphate dissolves metallic iron, the copper being precipitated from the solution at the same time in a spongy mass.

Anhydrous Cupric Sulphate. $CuSO_4$.

The property anhydrous cupric sulphate possesses of absorbing hydrochloric acid gas makes it useful in the determination of carbon by combustion, and it is best prepared for this purpose as follows. Heat crystals of cupric sulphate, about the size of a coffee bean, in a porcelain dish until the blue color of the crystals disappears and they become white. Transfer while still hot to a dry, glass-stoppered bottle.

Anhydrous Cuprous Chloride. CuCl.

To prepare the granulated salt for use as an absorbent of hydrochloric acid and chlorine in carbon determinations, moisten the ordinary powdered salt of commerce in a porcelain dish and rub it up with a glass rod into little lumps about the size of a coffee bean. Heat it gradually until the water is expelled and the lumps, which will be dark brown in color, harden. Transfer to a glass-stoppered bottle.

Cupric Chloride. $CuCl_2 + Aq.$

To prepare cupric chloride for use in dissolving iron or steel for the determination of carbon, grind up equal weights of cupric sulphate and common salt in a porcelain mortar, and pour over the mixture a small amount of water heated to from 50° to 60° C. The liquid becomes emerald-green in color, and deposits upon evaporation sodium sulphate. Decant from the deposited salt and evaporate again until the solution is reduced to a very small bulk. Cool, and decant from the remainder of the sodium sulphate and the excess of sodium chloride. By further evaporation and cooling the cupric chloride may be obtained in the form of green crystals. These crystals are deliquescent. The solution should be diluted and filtered through asbestos.

Ammonium-Copper Chloride. $2(NH_4Cl),CuCl_2,2H_2O.$

Potassium-Copper Chloride. $2(KCl),CuCl_2,2H_2O.$

Ammonium-copper chloride is a bluish-green crystalline salt, quite soluble in water.

Potassium-copper chloride is bluish-green likewise and more soluble than the ammonium salt. The recent experiments of the American members of the International Steel Standards Committee have shown that ammonium-copper chloride is nearly always impure, from the presence of hydrocarbons in the ammonium chloride, derived probably from the gas liquor from which ammonia salts are distilled. These hydrocarbons unite with the carbonaceous residue liberated from steel

and iron in the process of determining carbon, and of course vitiate the results. Several recrystallizations free the salt to a certain extent from this impurity. The use of the potassium salt is not open to this objection.

To prepare these salts proceed as follows. Dissolve 107 parts of ammonium chloride or 149.1 parts of potassium chloride and 170.3 parts of crystallized cupric chloride ($CuCl_2.2H_2O$) in water and crystallize out the double salt. Dissolve about 300 grammes of the double salt in 1 litre of water, filter through ignited asbestos, and preserve for use in glass-stoppered bottles.

Cupric Oxide. CuO.

Cupric oxide, both fine and coarse, for combustions is easily obtained. It may be prepared as follows. Dissolve metallic copper in nitric acid, evaporate to dryness in a porcelain dish, transfer it to a Hessian crucible, and heat it in a furnace until no more nitrous fumes are given off. Keep the crucible well covered to prevent any coal getting into it, and avoid raising the heat too high, or the mass will fuse. Stir it from time to time, and when finished the oxide on top will be in a fine powder, while that in the bottom of the crucible will have sintered. Rub it up in a mortar and pass through a fine metal sieve. Keep the two kinds, fine and coarse, in separate glass-stoppered bottles, carefully covered to protect them from dust.

Iron Wire.

Very fine soft piano-forte wire is the best form of iron to use when standardizing solutions of potassium permanganate or bichromate by metallic iron. Wrap one end of a piece of wire, about 2 feet (610 mm.) long around a lead-pencil, and, using this as a handle, draw the wire several times through a piece of fine emery-cloth, then through a fold of dry filter-paper, then, holding the wire with the paper, wrap it around the pencil. Cut off the end that has not been cleaned, and the little spiral of wire will be in a convenient form for weighing.

Ferrous Sulphate. $FeSO_4,7H_2O$.

Ferrous sulphate (green vitriol, or copperas) is a bluish-green crystalline salt, soluble in 1.64 parts of water at 10° C., and in 0.3 part at 100° C. It is insoluble in alcohol. The crystals lose 6 molecules of water when heated to 114° C., but retain the last molecule even at 280° C. Heated to a red heat the anhydrous sulphate is decomposed, giving off sulphurous acid and leaving a basic ferric sulphate, which at a higher temperature is entirely decomposed, leaving only ferric oxide. To prepare the crystals for use in volumetric analysis, add alcohol to the aqueous solution of the ferrous sulphate, when the salt is precipitated as a bluish-white powder. Filter, wash with alcohol, dry thoroughly, and preserve in glass-stoppered bottles. The salt prepared in this way remains unaltered for a long time.

Ferrous-Ammonium Sulphate. $FeSO_4(NH_4)_2SO_4,6H_2O$.

Ferrous-ammonium sulphate is a light green crystalline salt, soluble in 2.8 parts of water at 16.5° C. It may be prepared as follows. Dissolve 276 grammes of crystallized ferrous sulphate in water, filter, and add to the filtrate a clear solution of ammonium sulphate ($(NH_4)_2SO_4$, Glauber's Sal Secretum), evaporate down, and allow the double salt to crystallize out. Drain the crystals, wash slightly with cold water, and dry on blotting-paper. When perfectly dry, preserve in a glass-stoppered bottle. The crystals remain unaltered for a long time even in moist air. They contain exactly $\frac{1}{7}$ their weight of metallic iron.

Mercurous Nitrate. $HgNO_3,H_2O$.

To prepare this salt, pour cold, moderately strong nitric acid on an excess of metallic mercury, and when the violent action has subsided pour off the acid and allow the salt to crystallize out by the cooling of the acid. The salt is soluble in a small amount of water, but a large amount decomposes it into a basic salt and free acid.

Mercuric Oxide. HgO.

Mercuric oxide is a light orange-yellow substance when prepared by precipitation from a mercuric salt. To a dilute solution of mercuric chloride add a slight excess of caustic potash, allow the precipitate to settle, wash it thoroughly by decantation with hot water, and finally wash it into a glass-stoppered bottle. It is used shaken up with water.

Lead Chromate. $PbCrO_4$.

Fused lead chromate is a dark brown mass showing a radiated structure, and when powdered it is dark yellow in color, very heavy, and slightly hygroscopic. It is easily obtained very pure, but may be made as follows. Dissolve lead acetate in water, add a little acetic acid, filter, and precipitate by a solution of potassium bichromate. Wash by decantation, and finally on linen, dry, and heat in a Hessian crucible until the mass is just fused. Pour on a polished iron slab, grind in a clean mortar, and preserve the powder in glass-stoppered bottles, covered to exclude dust. Lead chromate heated to a full red heat gives off oxgyen and is reduced to a mixture of basic lead chromate and chromium oxide.

Lead Peroxide. PbO_2.

Lead peroxide is rather difficult to obtain in a state of purity; it is liable to contain lead nitrate and manganese oxide. The latter element interferes materially with its use as a reagent in the determination of manganese by the color test. It should always be carefully examined by boiling with dilute nitric acid, and, if it imparts any color to the solution, must be promptly rejected. It may readily be prepared by digesting red oxide of lead in dilute nitric acid, decanting off the lead nitrate, and washing the residue thoroughly with hot water. By this treatment the red oxide is decomposed into lead protoxide, which dissolves in the nitric acid, and lead peroxide, which remains insoluble. Lead peroxide is a heavy brown powder, which, when heated, gives off oxygen and is converted into red lead or lead protoxide.

Lead Oxide dissolved in Caustic Potash.

Pour a cold solution of lead nitrate into caustic potash, 1.27 sp. gr., stirring constantly to dissolve the lead oxide, which precipitates. Add the lead nitrate until a permanent precipitate is produced. Allow this to settle, and siphon the clear liquid into a glass-stoppered bottle. It is well to coat the stopper with a little paraffine, to prevent its sticking.

Platinic Chloride Solution.

Dissolve platinum-foil in hydrochloric acid, adding nitric acid from time to time, evaporate to dryness on the water-bath, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate again to drive off the nitric acid. Redissolve in water with the addition of a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter, and preserve in a bottle the stopper and neck of which are protected by a ground-glass cap to prevent access of ammonia to the solution.

Metallic Zinc.

Melt zinc, which should be as free as possible from lead and iron, in a Hessian crucible, and pour it in a thin stream from a height of four or five feet into a bucket of cold water, giving the crucible a circular motion to prevent the zinc from falling in exactly the same place all the time. Pour off the water, dry the granulated zinc, and preserve it in bottles for use.

Zinc Oxide in Water.

Emmerton * suggests the following method of preparing this reagent. Dissolve ordinary zinc white in hydrochloric acid, add the zinc white until there is an excess which will not dissolve, then add a little bromine-water, heat the solution, filter, and precipitate the zinc oxide by ammonia, being careful to avoid an excess. Wash thoroughly by decantation, and then wash into a bottle. Shake the bottle well, to diffuse the oxide through the water, before using.

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* Trans. Am. Inst. Min. Engineers, x. 201.

REAGENTS FOR DETERMINING PHOSPHORUS.

Magnesia Mixture.

Dissolve 110 grammes of crystallized magnesium chloride ($MgCl_2 + 6H_2O$) or 50 grammes of the anhydrous salt in water, and filter. Dissolve 28 grammes of ammonium chloride in water, add a little bromine-water and a slight excess of ammonia, and filter. Add this solution to the solution of magnesium chloride, add enough ammonia to make the solution smell decidedly of ammonia, dilute to about 2 litres, transfer to a bottle, shake vigorously from time to time, allow it to stand for several days, and filter into a small bottle as required for use. 10 c.c. of this solution will precipitate about 0.15 gramme phosphoric acid.

Molybdate Solution.

Weigh 100 grammes of pure molybdic anhydride, mix it thoroughly in a beaker with 400 c.c. of cold distilled water and add 80 c.c. of strong ammonia (0.90 sp. gr.). When solution is complete, filter and pour the filtered solution slowly with constant stirring into a mixture of 400 c.c. of strong nitric acid (1.42 sp. gr.) and 600 c.c. of distilled water. Allow to settle for 24 hours and filter. A solution prepared in this way will keep for several months even in hot weather without any deposition of molybdic acid.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

PIG-IRON, BAR-IRON, AND STEEL

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR.

By Evolution as Hydrogen Sulphide.

KARSTEN was the first to suggest dissolving iron or steel in hydrochloric acid, or dilute sulphuric acid, and collecting the evolved hydrogen sulphide by absorbing it in a solution of a metallic salt. He recommended cupric chloride.

Absorption by Alkaline Solution of Lead Nitrate.

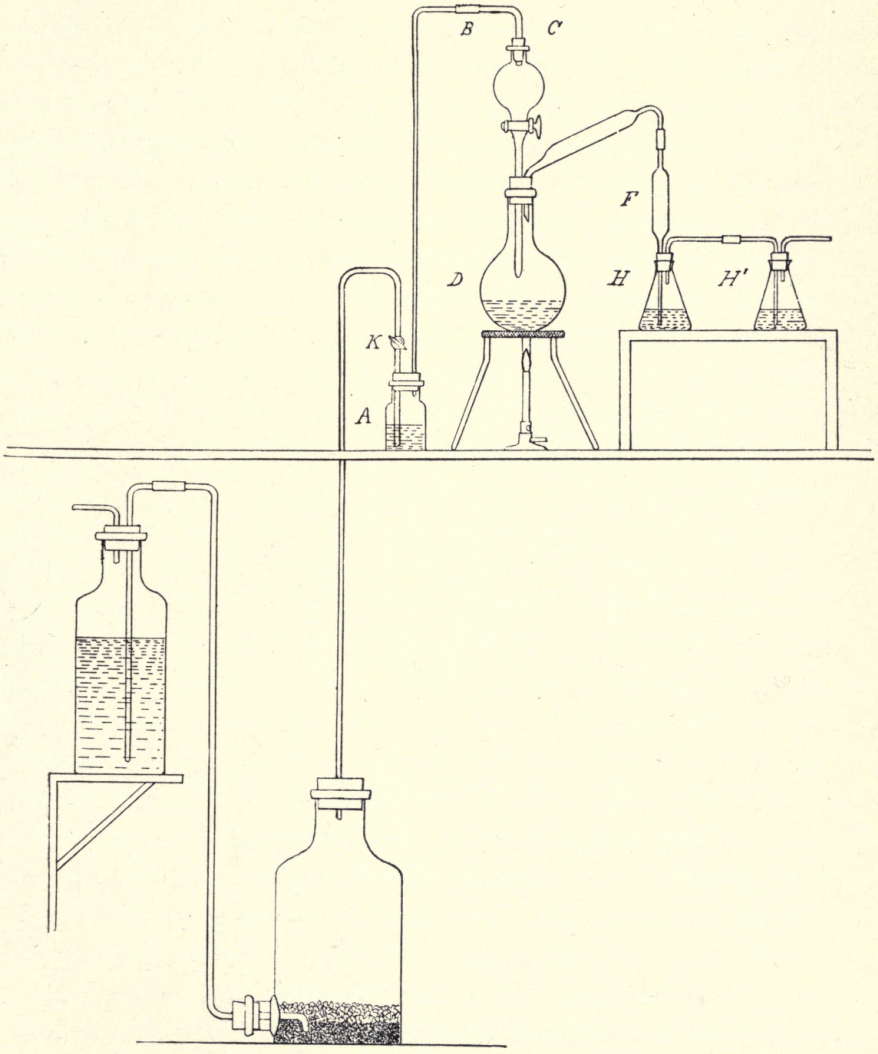
The apparatus, Fig. 47, shows the usual arrangement for carrying out the process, with the addition of the generating-bottles for supplying hydrogen gas. This is the apparatus described under the head of "Apparatus for Generating Carbonic Acid Gas," page 42. The wash-bottle A contains an alkaline solution of lead nitrate, and is connected with the funnel-tube by the rubber tube B, and a small piece of glass tubing, C, turned at a right angle with one end drawn down and covered with a short piece of rubber tubing. This fits in the neck of the bulb of the funnel-tube and makes a tight joint. The analytical process is conducted as follows:

Place 10 grammes * of borings or drillings, free from lumps, in the

* A 5-factor weight (6.878 grammes) is a better amount to take, as, when the weight of barium sulphate found is multiplied by two, each milligramme is one-thousandth of a per cent. of sulphur.

previously dried flask D, and close it with the rubber stopper fitted with a funnel-tube and a delivery-tube. The outlet-tube from the flask D

FIG. 47.



connects with the tube F, reaching almost to the bottom of the Erlenmeyer flask H. Pour into each of the flasks H about 20 or

30 c.c. of potassium hydrate solution of lead nitrate * and enough water to fill them two-thirds full. Connect the apparatus, and run a slow stream of hydrogen through until all the air is expelled, then close the glass stopcock of the funnel-tube, and shut off the supply of hydrogen by closing the small glass stopcock K. If the connections are all tight, the liquid will not recede in the tube F. When this is assured, disconnect the tube C, and fill the bulb—which should be of about 100 c.c. capacity—with a mixture of 50 c.c. of strong hydrochloric acid and 50 c.c. of water. Replace the tube C, turn on the hydrogen, and open the stopcock of the funnel-tube, so as to allow the acid to flow into the flask D. When the acid has all run into the flask, regulate the flow of the hydrogen so that the gas shall pass through the solutions in the flasks H, H′ as rapidly as possible, and heat the flask D. When the solution in the flask D has boiled for fifteen minutes, and all the metal has dissolved, remove the source of heat and continue the current of hydrogen for about ten minutes, regulating its flow by means of the stopcock K, to prevent any reflux of the liquid in H, which might be caused by the cooling of the flask D. Shut off the hydrogen, disconnect the apparatus, and wash the contents of the flask H into a No. 2 Griffin's beaker. Unless a precipitate of lead sulphide appears in the second flask H′, it need not be emptied, but the same solution can be used over again for the next analysis. Collect the precipitate on a small filter, wash it once or twice with hot water, and, while still moist, throw the filter and precipitate back into the beaker, in which have been placed the instant before some powdered potassium chlorate and from 5 to 20 c.c. of strong hydrochloric acid, according to the amount of the precipitate of lead sulphide. Allow it to stand in a warm place until the fumes shall have partly passed off, then add about twice its volume of hot water, and filter into a No. 1 beaker. Wash with hot water, heat the filtrate to boiling, and add ammonia until the solution is slightly alkaline to litmus-paper. Acidulate with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, add from 5 to 10 c.c. of barium

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* See page 58.

chloride solution,* boil 15 or 20 minutes, and stand aside for half an hour. Filter the precipitate of barium sulphate, preferably on a Gooch perforated crucible, wash with hot water, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate, which contains 13.75 per cent. sulphur. It is always well to test the alkaline filtrate from the lead sulphide with a few drops of the lead solution, for it might happen that all the lead would be precipitated from the solution as sulphide, and an excess of hydrogen sulphide remain in the solution as potassium sulphide.

The entire operation described above can be performed in about two and a half hours, and is, in my opinion, the most accurate method known for the determination of sulphur in steel.

Absorption by Ammoniacal Solution of Cadmium Sulphate.

T. T. Morrell † passes the evolved gas into an ammoniacal solution of cadmium sulphate. Prepare a solution of cadmium sulphate of convenient strength, and add enough ammonia to redissolve the precipitate and give a clear solution. Place the solution in the bottles H, H′, and proceed as usual. Filter the precipitate of cadmium sulphide in a counterpoised filter, wash with water containing a little ammonia, dry at 100° C., and weigh as cadmium sulphide, which contains 22.25 per cent. of sulphur. Instead of cadmium sulphate, cadmium chloride seems to be now more generally in use.

Absorption by Ammoniacal Solution of Silver Nitrate.

Berzelius proposed the use of a dilute solution of silver nitrate made alkaline by ammonia. The method of procedure is as follows. Dissolve 1 gramme of silver nitrate in a small quantity of water, and make it strongly alkaline with ammonia; pour about two-thirds of the solution into the first of the bottles H, and the remainder into the second, and fill up to the proper level with water. Proceed exactly as described above until the silver sulphide has been filtered off and washed. Dry this

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* See page 51.

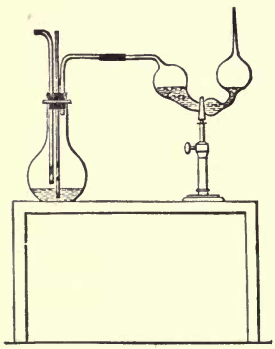
† Chem. News, xxviii. 229.

precipitate carefully at a low temperature—say 100° C.—and brush it carefully into a small, dry beaker, returning the filter to the funnel. Pour into the bottles H, should any of the sulphide remain adhering to the sides, 20 or 30 c.c. strong nitric acid, and when it is all dissolved, pour the acid in the filter, allowing it to run into the beaker containing the silver sulphide, and wash out the bottles with a little nitric acid, allowing this to run over the filter also. Digest the silver sulphide until it is all dissolved, then dilute with hot water, add an excess of hydrochloric acid, and filter off the silver chloride. Add a small amount of sodium carbonate, and evaporate nearly dry, dilute, add a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter if necessary, and precipitate as before by barium chloride. Even when the sample contains no sulphur a slight precipitate of silver carbide may be thrown down by the carburetted hydrogen evolved from the iron or steel by the action of the acid.

Absorption and Oxidation by Bromine and Hydrochloric Acid.

Fresenius * suggested passing the evolved gases through a solution of bromine in hydrochloric acid, which has the advantage of oxidizing the hydrogen sulphide at once, but the disadvantage of filling the room with bromine-fumes unless the apparatus is placed under a hood with a good draft. It is necessary when using this method to avoid bringing the bromine-fumes in contact with rubber stoppers. Instead of the bottles H, attach to the exit-tube a bulb-tube of the shape shown in Fig. 48, containing from 3 to 5 c.c. of bromine and enough hydrochloric acid to fill the bulb-tube to the marks shown in the cut. When the operation is finished, wash the contents of the bulb-tube out into a beaker, heat until the bromine is all driven off, neutralize by ammonia, and precipitate the sulphuric acid exactly as described on page 62. Instead of neutralizing by ammonia, the hydrochloric

FIG. 48.



* Fresenius, Zeitschrift, xiii. 37.

acid solution may be evaporated down nearly to dryness after adding a little sodium carbonate or the solution of barium chloride; but repeated experiments have shown that barium sulphate is practically insoluble in ammonium chloride, so that the plan of neutralizing by ammonia, being the shorter and less troublesome, is to be preferred.

Absorption and Oxidation by Potassium Permanganate.

Drown * suggested the use of potassium permanganate solution as an absorbent and oxidizer, the process being carried on as follows. Make a solution of potassium permanganate, 5 grammes to the litre of water, and fill the bottles H to the proper height with this liquid, using three bottles, however, instead of two, and proceed with the operation as before described, being careful to avoid a rapid evolution of the gas. Wash the contents of the bottles H into a clean beaker, dissolve any manganese oxide that may adhere to the sides of the bottles in hydrochloric acid, add this to the solution in the beaker, and then add enough hydrochloric acid to entirely decompose the permanganate. Boil until the solution is colorless, filter if necessary, and precipitate by barium chloride. Allow it to stand overnight, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh the barium sulphate.

Absorption and Oxidation by Hydrogen Peroxide.

Craig † suggested the use of ammoniacal solution of hydrogen peroxide in the absorbing-bottles. Attach to the exit-tube of the flask D (Fig. 47) a nitrogen-bulb of the usual form (Fig. 48), in which have been placed 4 c.c. of hydrogen peroxide and 16 c.c. of ammonia, and proceed as before directed. When the operation is finished, wash the contents of the nitrogen-bulb into a small beaker, acidulate slightly with hydrochloric acid, boil, add barium chloride, and determine the amount of barium sulphate as usual. As hydrogen peroxide always contains sulphuric acid, the amount must be carefully determined in each fresh lot of the hydrogen peroxide, and the proper correction made for the volume used.

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* Journal Inst. Min. Engineers, ii. 224.

† Chem. News, xlvi. 199.

By Oxidation and Solution.

Many chemists still prefer the method of oxidizing and dissolving the metal and precipitating the sulphuric acid in the solution by barium chloride. The details are as follows. Treat 5 grammes of drillings in a No. 4 Griffin's beaker, covered by a watch-glass, with 40 c.c. of strong nitric acid. This requires care, for drillings of bar-iron and low steel are often acted on so violently, even by strong nitric acid, as to cause the solution to boil over. In this case it is best to place the beaker in a dish containing a little cold water and to add the acid gradually. When all the acid has been added and the action has ceased, some small particles generally remain undissolved, and their solution is effected by heating the beaker on the sand-bath and finally by adding a few drops of hydrochloric acid. With pig-iron and steel there is usually no action in the cold, and in this case heat the beaker carefully until the action begins, then stand the beaker in a cooler place, and if the action becomes very violent, stand the beaker in cold water until it moderates. Very high carbon steels dissolve with great difficulty even in boiling acid; but the solution may be hastened by adding a few drops of hydrochloric acid from time to time. When solution is complete and only particles of graphite and silica remain undissolved, which is shown by the residue being entirely flotant, remove the cover, add a little sodium carbonate, and evaporate the solution to dryness in the air-bath. The addition of the sodium carbonate is to prevent any possible loss of sulphuric acid, which might otherwise occur by the decomposition of the ferric sulphate at a high temperature. Remove the beaker from the air-bath, and when cold add 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and heat until the ferric oxide is dissolved, evaporate again to dryness to render the silica insoluble, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, evaporate until the ferric chloride begins to separate out, add 2 c.c. hydrochloric acid and a little water. Filter and wash, being careful that the total filtrate and washings shall not exceed 100 c.c. in volume. Heat the filtrate to boiling, add 10 c.c. saturated solution of barium chloride, and allow it to stand in the cold overnight. Filter, wash with a little very dilute hydrochloric acid, and finally with cold water; dry, ignite, and weigh as barium

sulphate. If this ignited precipitate is reddish in color, it shows that ferric oxide has been precipitated with the barium sulphate. In this case fuse with sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, filter, acidulate the filtrate, and precipitate as before. Or, filter the aqueous solution of the fusion, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, precipitate by ammonia, weigh the ferric oxide, and subtract from the weight of barium sulphate.

Bamber's Method (for Pig-Iron).

The investigations of Phillips * and Matthewman † have shown conclusively that in many pig-irons the evolution method fails to give the full sulphur contents. This seems to be due to the formation of organic sulphides, probably of the mercaptan series, and not to the presence of copper or arsenic, as has been supposed. As those compounds are quite volatile and very difficult to oxidize, some portions seem to pass through the absorbing solutions, while under certain circumstances other portions remain in the evolution flask with great persistency and are expelled only after long boiling.

The only practicable method for pig-irons of this character, therefore, is the following. Dissolve 5 grammes or a 5-factor weight (6.878 grammes) in strong nitric acid, add 10 grammes of sodium carbonate, wash into a platinum or porcelain dish, evaporate to dryness and ignite over an alcohol flame. Treat with water with the addition of a little sodium carbonate, filter, and wash with water containing sodium carbonate. Acidulate with hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, and precipitate boiling with barium chloride.

Notes and Precautions.

There are three precautions to be observed in using the oxidation method.

1. The sample should be dissolved in strong nitric acid, as, when dilute nitric acid, or even aqua regia, is used, some sulphur seems to escape oxidation.

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* Journal American Chem. Society, xvii. 891.

† Journal West of Scotland Iron and Steel Institute, iii. 27.

2. The amount of acid in the solution from which the barium sulphate is precipitated must be most carefully regulated, as well as the absolute volume of the solution.

3. The reagents used must be examined for sulphuric acid. This is best done as follows. Measure into a beaker the total amount of acid, both nitric and hydrochloric, used in the determination, add a little sodium carbonate and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in 15 c.c. of water and 5 or 10 drops of hydrochloric acid, filter, heat to boiling, add 10 c.c. of barium chloride, boil 10 or 15 minutes, allow to settle, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate. The amount found is to be subtracted from the total weight of barium sulphate found in the sample.

In the use of the evolution method for steels, the results obtained vary somewhat with the solution used for absorbing the hydrogen sulphide, and I am satisfied that the best absorbent is the alkaline solution of lead nitrate. I have never failed, so far as I know, in getting correct results with this absorbent in any steel. The evolution of the gas should be as rapid as possible, as there seems to be no danger of any hydrogen sulphide passing the liquid in the first flask, and the operation is naturally shortened. If the solution containing the precipitated barium sulphate is boiled vigorously for 15 or 20 minutes, it is not necessary to allow it to stand more than half an hour, so that a determination can be made in two hours, or two hours and a half, without any trouble.

RAPID METHOD.

Volumetric Determination by Iodine.

This method, suggested by Elliott,* involves the evolution of the sulphur as hydrogen sulphide, its absorption in a solution of sodium hydroxide, and titration by iodine in potassium iodide. It requires a standard solution of iodine, a standard solution of sodium thiosulphate, a starch solution, and a standard solution of potassium bichromate.

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* Chem. News, xxiii. 61.

Iodine Solution.

Dissolve 6.5 grammes pure iodine in water with 9 grammes potassium iodide, and dilute to 1 litre.

Sodium Thiosulphate Solution.

Dissolve 25 grammes sodium thiosulphate in water, and dilute to 1 litre.

Starch Solution.

Weigh into a porcelain or Wedgwood mortar 1 gramme of pure wheat starch, and rub it to a thin cream with water. Pour it into 150 c.c. boiling water, allow it to stand until cold, and decant the clear solution. The addition of 10 or 15 c.c. glycerine makes the solution keep better. It is better, however, to make a fresh starch solution every few days.

Dr. Waller recommends Müller's suggestion of grinding the starch with a strong solution of potassium or sodium hydroxide and dissolving in hot water for use. It keeps indefinitely.

Potassium Bichromate Solution.

Dissolve 5 grammes pure potassium bichromate in water, and dilute to 1 litre.

All these solutions should be placed in glass-stoppered bottles and kept in a dark place.

Standardizing the Solutions.

Standardize the bichromate solution as directed in the "Analysis of Iron Ores." When potassium bichromate is added to potassium iodide in presence of free hydrochloric acid, iodine is liberated, in accordance with the formula $K_2Cr_2O_7 + 6KI + 14HCl = 8KCl + Cr_2Cl_6 + 7H_2O + 6I$, or 1 equivalent of potassium bichromate = 294.5 liberates 6 equivalents of iodine = 761.1. Therefore, by adding to a solution of potassium iodide in the presence of hydrochloric acid a known amount of bichromate, we can calculate the absolute amount of iodine liberated, and by titrating this solution by the thiosulphate solution we can

accurately standardize the latter. The reaction which takes place when a solution of sodium thiosulphate is acted on by iodine is $2Na_2S_2O_3 + 2I = 2NaI + Na_2S_4O_6$, or 2 equivalents of thiosulphate unite with 2 equivalents of iodine to form sodium iodide and sodium tetrathionate. By adding a few drops of starch solution to a solution containing iodine, blue iodide of starch is formed, and colors the solution as long as it contains free iodine. When enough thiosulphate is added to a solution of this kind to combine exactly with the iodine, the blue color disappears. Conversely, upon adding a solution of iodine to a solution containing sodium thiosulphate and a little starch, the sensitive blue color of the iodide of starch will disappear as fast as formed until all the thiosulphate has been changed to tetrathionate, and then the first drop of iodine in excess will change the solution to a permanent blue. The same thing holds true as regards a solution containing free hydrogen sulphide, the reaction being $H_2S + 2I = 2HI + S$. Proceed therefore as follows. Dissolve about 1 gramme of pure potassium iodide in 300 c.c. water, add 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and then 25 c.c. of the bichromate solution, which will liberate a known amount of iodine. Drop in now the thiosulphate solution from a burette until the iodine nearly disappears, add a few drops of starch solution, and continue the thiosulphate until the blue color fades out entirely. The amount of iodine being known, the value of the thiosulphate solution is calculated from the reading of the burette. Now allow to flow into a beaker from a carefully graduated pipette 25 c.c. of the thiosulphate solution, dilute to 300 c.c., add a few drops of the starch solution, and drop, from a burette, standard iodine solution until the blue color is permanent. The value of the thiosulphate solution being known, that of the iodine solution is readily calculated. An example will illustrate this. Suppose we find by titration that 1 c.c. of our bichromate solution is equal to .00566 gramme metallic iron; then, as the reaction is $6FeCl_2 + K_2Cr_2O_7 + 14HCl = 3Fe_2Cl_6 + 2KCl + Cr_2Cl_6 + 7H_2O$, 1 equivalent of potassium bichromate = 294.5 is equal to 6 equivalents of iron = 336. Hence 336 : 294.5 = .00566 : .004961, or 1 c.c. of the bichromate solution contains .004961 gramme

potassium bichromate, and consequently 25 c.c. contain .124025 gramme potassium bichromate. Then, as we saw by the formula that 294.5 parts bichromate liberate 761.1 parts iodine, we have 294.5 : 761.1 = .124025 : .32052, or 25 c.c. of the bichromate solution liberate .32052 gramme iodine. We now find that it requires 25.3 c.c. of the thiosulphate solution to decolorize the solution made by adding 25 c.c. bichromate solution to the potassium iodide; consequently each c.c. of the thiosulphate contains enough sodium thiosulphate to react with .01267 gramme iodine. We now measure out 10 c.c. of the thiosulphate solution, dilute it to 300 c.c., add a few drops of starch solution, and find that it requires 20.1 c.c. of the iodide solution to give the permanent blue color. Hence 20.1 c.c. = .1267 gramme iodine, or 1 c.c. iodide solution contains .006303 gramme iodine. As the reaction with hydrogen sulphide is $H_2S + 2I = 2HI + S$, it requires 2 equivalents of iodine to decompose 1 equivalent of hydrogen sulphide, and the proportion is 2I : S : : 253.7 : 32.06 : : .006303 : .000796, or 1 c.c. iodine is equal to .000796 gramme sulphur.

The standard solutions once ready, the actual determination of sulphur in a sample is very simple. Pour 50 c.c. of a solution of caustic soda, 1.1 sp. gr., free from sulphur, into the first of the bottles H. The second need not be used, but it is a good plan to keep a caustic potash solution of lead nitrate in it, and attach it after the other, to be certain that no hydrogen sulphide escapes the caustic soda solution. Proceed with the determination as directed on page 60, and when finished wash the contents of the bottle H into a beaker, dilute to 500 c.c., acidulate with hydrochloric acid, add a few drops of starch solution, and titrate with the iodide solution. See exactly how much hydrochloric acid is required to acidulate strongly 50 c.c. of the caustic soda solution, and this amount can be added at once, so that no time need be lost in testing the solution with litmus before titrating.

Mr. E. F. Wood,* of the Homestead Steel-Works, modifies the method as follows. Pass the evolved gas into an ammoniacal solution of cadmium

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* Communicated to the author.

sulphate instead of caustic soda. Filter, place the filter containing the precipitate of cadmium sulphide in a beaker containing cold water, add enough hydrochloric acid to dissolve the precipitate, and titrate with iodide solution as above described.

Mr. Wood thinks that this method has several advantages over that in which caustic soda is used to absorb the hydrogen sulphide. The hydrocarbon gases absorbed by the alkaline solution are gotten rid of, and the error which their presence may produce is avoided; the bulk of the precipitate is an indication of the amount of sulphur and a guide to the proper amount of hydrochloric acid to use for its solution, and when the cadmium sulphide is filtered off, only a small amount of hydrochloric acid is required, and the generation of heat from the neutralization of the alkali is avoided.

DETERMINATION OF SILICON.

By Solution in Nitric and Hydrochloric Acids.

Dissolve 5 grammes of drillings in 40 c.c. nitric acid with the precautions mentioned on page 66; although when silicon *alone* is to be determined, nitric acid of 1.2 sp. gr. may be used, when, in most cases, the solution of the drillings will be more rapid. Remove the cover, evaporate the solution to dryness in the air-bath, replace the cover, and raise the temperature of the bath until the ferric nitrate is decomposed. Remove the beaker from the air-bath, allow it to cool, add 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and heat gradually until all the ferric oxide is dissolved. Remove the cover, and evaporate again to dryness in the air-bath, redissolve in 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, dilute to about 150 c.c., and filter on an ashless filter. Detach any adhering silica from the sides and bottom of the beaker with a "policeman," or with a piece of filter-paper, and wash it out with cold water. Wash the filter first with dilute hydrochloric acid, and finally with water. Dry, and ignite in a platinum crucible until all the carbon is burned, weigh the residue in the crucible, moisten it with water, add from 1 to 10 drops sulphuric acid, and enough hydrofluoric acid to dissolve it completely, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. The difference

between the two weights is silica, which contains 47.02 per cent. of silicon. In the absence of hydrofluoric acid, unless the silica is perfectly white, fuse with 5 or 6 times its weight of sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness (in a platinum or porcelain dish, with the arrangement shown on page 20), redissolve in hydrochloric acid and water, dilute, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh. When the weight of sodium carbonate taken does not exceed 2 or 3 grammes, allow the crucible to cool after fusion, and then add to it gradually an excess of strong sulphuric acid, heating very slowly, until the mass is quite liquid and fumes of sulphuric anhydride come off. Allow it to cool, dissolve in water, filter, wash well, ignite, and weigh.

By Solution in Nitric and Sulphuric Acids.

Drown * has suggested a method which, for pig-irons, has come into very general use, and which is much more rapid than the other method and quite as exact. Treat 1 gramme of borings in a platinum or porcelain dish with 20 c.c. nitric acid, 1.2 sp. gr. When all action has ceased, add 20 c.c. of sulphuric acid (equal parts of acid and water), and evaporate—using the arrangement shown on page 20—until copious fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. Allow to cool, and dilute with 150 c.c. water; heat carefully until all the ferric sulphate has dissolved, filter hot,† wash first with dilute hydrochloric acid, 1.1 sp. gr., and then with hot water, ignite, and weigh. Treat the contents of the crucible with sulphuric and hydrofluoric acids, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh again. The difference between the two weights is silica.

By Volatilization in a Current of Chlorine Gas.

As almost all steels and irons contain slags of various compositions, it must be understood that the silica obtained by the methods given above is the total silica, comprising any silica that may be present in

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* Journal Inst. Min. Engineers, vii. 346.

† Dr. Dudley has shown that upon long standing silica dissolves, and it is therefore advisable to filter the sulphuric acid solution as soon as the ferric sulphate is dissolved.

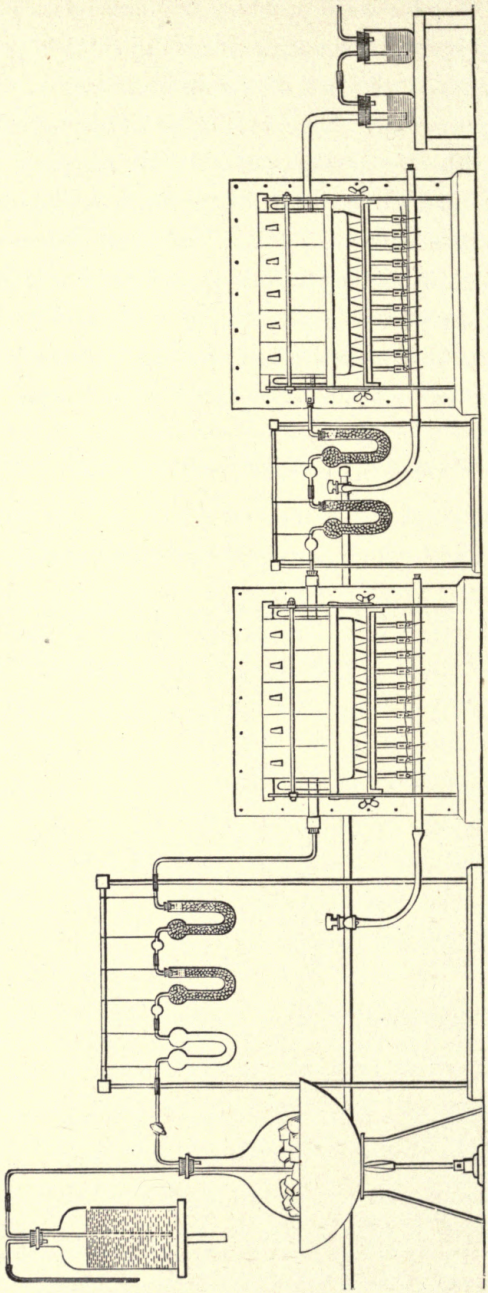

FIG. 49

the admixed slag, as well as that formed from the silicon present in the metal. The volatilization method separates the two. The process suggested by Drown,* and worked out independently two years later by Watts,† is as follows. Fig. 49 shows the general arrangement of the apparatus. The large flask contains strong common manganese dioxide in lumps. The bottle above it contains strong common hydrochloric acid, which runs into the flask through a siphon-tube extending almost to the bottom. The flask stands in a dish containing water, which can be heated by the burner under the tripod. The evolution-tube from the flask has a stopcock, and connects with the three bulb-tubes on the stand, the first containing water, the second pumice-stone, and the third pumice saturated with strong sulphuric acid. The outlet-tube from the latter leads into the porcelain or glass tube in the furnace. This tube contains small lumps of charcoal or gas carbon, kept in position by loosely fitting plugs of asbestos, and occupying about 8 inches (200 mm.) in the middle of the tube. The outlet-tube from this connects with the drying-tubes on the second stand, which contain pumice moistened with strong sulphuric acid. The outlet from the second drying-tube connects with the glass combustion-tube, which leads through the second furnace, and is bent at a right angle where it is connected with the large tubes, half filled with water. The apparatus being in order,‡ start a slow current of chlorine through the apparatus by blowing hydrochloric acid from the bottle into the flask and filling the dish in which the latter stands with water. Light a low light under the dish, and open the stopcock wide enough to allow a very slow current to bubble through the bulbs. Light the burners of the first furnace so that the tube is heated to dull redness. When the apparatus is full of chlorine, place 1 gramme of pig-iron, or 3 grammes of steel, in a porcelain boat about 3 inches long, distributing the drillings evenly along the bottom

* Jour. Inst. Min. Engineers, viii. 508. † Chem. News, xlv. 279.

‡ All the stoppers used should be of rubber coated with paraffine on the ends, or of asbestos, and where glass tubes are joined together with rubber the ends of the glass tubes should be brought into close contact.

of the boat. Remove the stopper at the rear end of the second tube and insert the boat to about the centre. Replace the stopper, and continue the current of chlorine in the cold for ten or fifteen minutes to make sure that no oxygen remains in the tube, then light the burner under the forward end of the boat. The heat must be just sufficient to volatilize the ferric chloride, which should condense in the cooler part of the tube, and the current of gas should be slow enough to prevent any ferric chloride from being carried forward into the water-tubes or any loss of carbon from the boat. When the fumes of ferric chloride begin to come off more slowly, light the next burner, and continue until all the burners under the boat are lighted, maintaining the heat until the fumes of ferric chloride cease. The tube for the entire length occupied by the boat should be at a dull red heat. Should the condensed ferric chloride at any time choke the tube so as to prevent the passage of the gas, heat that part of the tube gently with a spirit-lamp, so as to drive the ferric chloride a little farther along the tube. When the fumes of ferric chloride are no longer given off from the boat, the operation may be considered finished. Turn out the lights under the tube containing the boat, remove the stopper, and draw out the boat, which now contains the carbon, the slag, and the greater part of the manganese (as chloride) which were contained in the iron and steel. This residue may be used for the determination of the carbon or the slag, as will be shown farther on. If another determination is to be made, another tube may be substituted for the one which contained the boat, and the analysis carried out in the manner described above. If not, put out all the lights, close the stopcock, and withdraw the combustion-tube with the water-tubes. Remove the stoppers from the latter, and pour the contents of these tubes into a platinum dish containing a small amount of an aqueous solution of sulphurous acid, to prevent the chlorine in the solutions from acting on the platinum. Rinse the tubes into the dish, and if any silica has separated and adheres to the water-tubes or to the end of the combustion-tube, loosen it with a "policeman" and wash it into the dish. Add 5 c.c. strong sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, and

heat until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. Allow the dish to cool, add 100 c.c. cold water, and filter the silica on a small ashless filter. Burn and weigh as silica. Calculate to Silicon. The filtrate from the silica will contain any titanic acid which may have been in the metal and which can be determined, as will be shown farther on. Silicon and titanium are volatilized as chlorides, under the conditions shown above, and decomposed by water thus: $SiCl_4 + 2H_2O = 4HCl + SiO_2$ and $TiCl_4 + 2H_2O = 4HCl + TiO_2$.

Rapid Method for Determination of Silicon. (S. Alfred Ford.*)

At the Edgar Thomson Steel-Works the molten pig-metal is taken directly from the furnaces to the converters, and it is generally necessary to determine the amount of silicon in the pig-iron as a guide in blowing the metal. To get the sample for analysis, a small ladle is dipped into the iron as it runs from the furnace, and a small quantity of molten iron is taken. The ladle is then held about three feet above a bucket of water, and the molten metal dropped into the water, at the same time giving the ladle a circular motion over the bucket. This will cause the iron to form in globules, more or less round according to the amount of silicon contained in the iron. Thus, with iron which contains 2 per cent. of silicon or more, the globules will be almost perfectly round, concave on the upper surface, and generally from ¼ inch (6 mm.) to ⅜ inch (9 mm.) in diameter; while if the iron be low in silicon, the shot or drops will be very small, flat, and irregular in shape, and if the iron be very low in silicon, as is the case with spiegel and ferro-manganese, the shot will be elongated and have tails sometimes ¼ inch (6 mm.) in length. In fact, a close observer can soon judge very closely as to the amount of silicon from the condition of these shot or drops. The next step in the process is to take the shot from the bucket and place them for a minute in the ladle which has been used to dip up the molten iron. The ladle, being hot, will dry the shot almost instantly. The shot are then placed in a large steel mortar (Fig. 7, page 17) and crushed. The crushed shot are then sifted with a fine sieve, and

* Prepared by Mr. Ford for this volume.

.5 gramme of the fine siftings are placed in a platinum evaporating-dish, 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, 1.2 sp. gr., are then added, and the dish covered with a watch-glass. The dish is then placed over a light, and the iron dissolved; as soon as solution takes place, which requires about one minute, as the particles of iron are so small, the watch-glass is removed and the solution evaporated to dryness as rapidly as possible over a naked light; as soon as dry, not even waiting for the dish to cool, dilute hydrochloric acid is dropped on the ferric chloride, and as soon as all the ferric oxide (which may have been formed by the decomposition of the chloride) is dissolved, water is added. The contents of the dish are then poured on a filter, to which is attached a pump, filtered, and washed. The filter and its contents are then placed in a weighed platinum crucible, placed over a blast-lamp; as soon as the filter-paper is burned off, the crucible is turned on its side, the lid removed, and a small jet of oxygen is driven very gently into the crucible. As soon as what little carbon there is in the precipitate is burned off, the crucible is cooled and weighed, and the amount of silicon calculated from the weight of the silica in the crucible.

By this method the amount of silicon in a pig-iron can be determined in twelve minutes from the time the ladle is put into the molten iron, and it gives results close enough for practical purposes.

DETERMINATION OF SLAG AND OXIDES.

A certain amount of slag and oxide of iron is always present in puddled iron as a mechanical admixture. It is also found, as a general thing, in basic steel, and the presence of slag in steel made by the acid process, as well as in pig-iron, is not unusual. The easiest method for the determination of these substances is by solution in iodine, as suggested by Eggertz.

By Solution in Iodine.

Place 5 grammes of borings free from lumps in a No. 2 Griffin's beaker. Stand the beaker, carefully covered with a watch-glass, in a dish filled with scraped ice or snow, so that the bottom and sides of the beaker half-way up shall be in contact with it. Pour over the iron in the beaker

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25 c.c. of ice-cold boiled water, and stir until all the air in the borings has escaped. Add gradually from 28 to 30 grammes of resublimed iodine,* stirring occasionally, until all the iodine has dissolved. Keep the beaker constantly surrounded by ice, and add the iodine slowly enough to prevent any rise in the temperature of the solution. Stir the solution frequently until the iron is perfectly dissolved, which will take several hours; then add 100 c.c. cold boiled water, allow the insoluble matter to settle, and decant the supernatant fluid on a small ashless filter. Wash the insoluble matter several times, by decantation, with cold water, then add to it a little water, with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, and observe whether any hydrogen is disengaged. If none can be perceived, the metallic iron may be considered entirely dissolved; but if gas is given off, the opposite is the case. In either event, quickly decant the acidulated water on the filter, and if any metallic iron remains, add a very little water and some iodine to dissolve the iron entirely. Then transfer the insoluble matter, consisting of graphite, carbonaceous matter, slag, iron oxide, and some silica, to the filter, wash the filter once with very dilute hydrochloric acid (1 acid to 20 water), and finally with cold water, until the filtrate is free from iron. Unfold the filter, and with a fine jet wash off the insoluble matter into a small platinum or silver dish. Evaporate almost to dryness, add 50 c.c. solution of caustic potash, sp. gr. 1.1, and boil five or ten minutes. Decant the liquid on a very small ashless filter, repeat the boiling with fresh caustic potash, transfer the insoluble matter to the filter, and wash well with hot water. Wash once with dilute hydrochloric acid (1 acid to 20 water), and finally with hot water, until the filtrate gives no precipitate with a solution of silver nitrate. Dry, ignite, and weigh as Slag and Iron Oxide.

Instead of using iodine directly for the solution of the iron, a solution of iodine in iron iodide, as suggested by Eggertz,† may be used to great advantage, as it affords a ready method for getting rid of the impurities usually present in resublimed iodine. Treat 5 grammes of iron (as free as possible from silicon) with 25 grammes of iodine, and, when the solution is complete, add 30 grammes more of iodine, which will dissolve in the

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* Page 41.

† Jern-Kontorets Annaler, 1881, p. 301, and Chem. News, xliv. 173.

iron iodide in a few minutes. Dilute to 50 c.c. with cold boiled water and filter through a washed filter. Add the filtrate at once to 5 grammes of the weighed sample, and, after solution is complete, proceed as directed above.

By Volatilization in a Current of Chlorine Gas.

Proceed exactly as in the method for the determination of silicon (pages 73 *et seq.*) until the boat is withdrawn from the combustion-tube. Wash the contents of the boat into a small beaker with a jet of cold water, and filter on a small ashless filter. The water dissolves any soluble metallic chlorides which are not volatile at a low red heat, and the insoluble matter in the filter consists of slag and carbon. Burn off the carbon and weigh the residue as Slag and Oxides. Or, if the carbon has been determined by another operation, filter the carbon and slag on a counterpoised filter * or on a Gooch crucible, dry at 100° C., and weigh as Carbon, Slag, and Oxides; by subtracting the weight of the carbon the difference is Slag and Oxides.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS.

For the determination of phosphorus in iron and steel but two methods are in general use, either of which, properly carried out, will give extremely accurate results. Some chemists prefer one method, some the other, while a combination of the two is sometimes used. The two general methods are known respectively as the *Acetate Method* and the *Molybdate Method.* There are innumerable variations in the details, especially of the latter method, but any departure from what might be termed the standard instructions should never be attempted by any but a very experienced analyst.

The Acetate Method.

The essential parts of this method were suggested by Fresenius,† the changes and improvements in details being the work of many chemists.‡

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* See page 28.

† Jour. für Pr. Ch., xlv. 258.

‡ Tenth Census of the U. S., vol. xv. "Iron Ores of the U. S.," p. 523.

Treat 5 grammes of drillings in a No. 4 Griffin's beaker with 80 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), and, when violent action has ceased, add 10 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid. Evaporate the solution to dryness in the air-bath, replace the cover, and heat until the ferric nitrate is nearly all decomposed. Cool, add 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, heat gradually until the iron oxide is dissolved, and evaporate to dryness again in the air-bath. Cool, dissolve in 30 c.c hydrochloric acid, dilute, and, in steels or puddled iron, when silicon is to be determined, filter, and treat the insoluble matter as directed for the determination of silicon, on page 72.

In the case of pig-irons which may contain titanium, filter, and keep the residue of graphite, silica, etc., for treatment, as directed farther on, "when titanium is present."

In the case of steels, when silicon is not to be determined in this portion, the solution need not be filtered at all, but may be diluted at once to about 250 c.c.

In any case, heat the filtered or unfiltered hydrochloric acid solution nearly to boiling, remove the beaker from the light, and add gradually from a small beaker a mixture of 10 c.c. acid ammonium sulphite * and 20 c.c. ammonia, stirring constantly. The precipitate, which forms at first, redissolves, and when all but about 2 or 3 c.c. of the acid ammonium sulphite solution has been added, replace the beaker over the light. If at any time while adding the acid ammonium sulphite solution the precipitate formed will not redissolve even after vigorous stirring, add a few drops of hydrochloric acid, and, when the solution clears, continue the addition, very slowly, of the acid ammonium sulphite. After replacing the beaker on the light, add to the solution (which should smell quite strongly of sulphurous anhydride) ammonia, drop by drop, until the solution is quite decolorized, and until finally a *slight* greenish precipitate remains undissolved even after vigorous stirring. Now add the remaining 2 or 3 c.c. of the acid ammonium sulphite solution, which should throw down a white precipitate, which usually redissolves, leaving the solution quite clear and almost perfectly decolorized. Should any precipitate remain undissolved, however, add

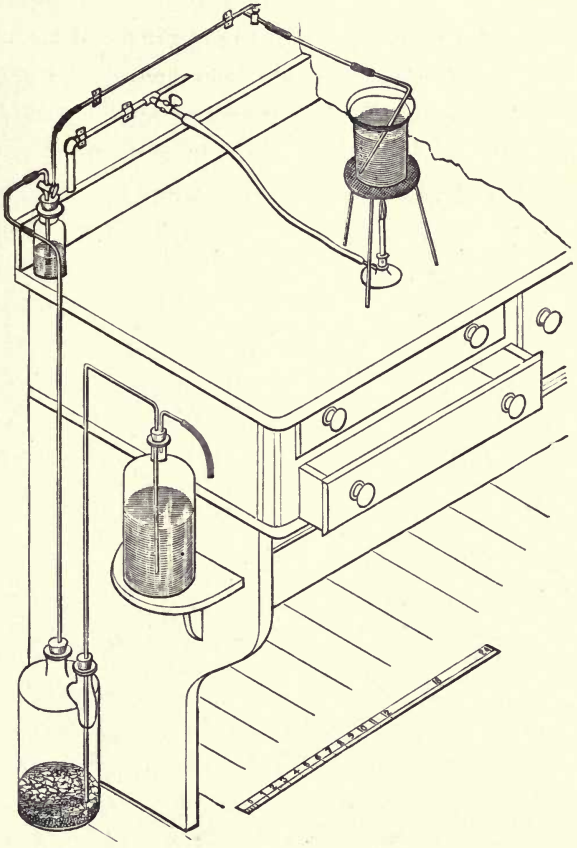
* See page 44.

hydrochloric acid, drop by drop, until the solution clears, when it should smell perceptibly of sulphurous anhydride. If the reagents are used in exactly the proportions indicated, the reactions will take place as described, and the operations will be readily and quickly carried out. If the solution of acid ammonium sulphite is weaker than it should be, of course the ferric chloride will not be reduced, and the solution, at the end of the operation described above, will not be decolorized and will not smell of sulphurous anhydride. In this case add more acid ammonium sulphite (without the addition of ammonia) until the solution smells strongly of sulphurous anhydride, then add ammonia until the slight permanent precipitate appears, and redissolve it in as few drops of hydrochloric acid as possible. The solution being now very nearly neutral, the iron in the ferrous condition, and an excess of sulphurous acid present, add to the solution 5 c.c. of hydrochloric acid to make it decidedly acid and to insure the complete decomposition of any excess of the acid ammonium sulphite which may be present. Boil the solution,* while a stream of carbonic acid passes through it, until every trace of sulphurous anhydride is expelled, then pass a current of hydrogen suphide through it for about fifteen minutes to precipitate any arsenic which may be present, and finally allow the solution to stand in a warm place until the smell of hydrogen sulphide has disappeared, or, better, pass a current of carbonic acid through the solution, which will expel the hydrogen sulphide in a few minutes. The arrangement, Fig. 50, is convenient for this purpose. Filter from any arsenious sulphide, cuprous sulphide, sulphur, etc., into a No. 5 beaker, wash with cold water, and to the filtrate add a few drops of bromine-water, or of a solution of ferric chloride, and cool it by placing the beaker in cold water. To the cold solution add ammonia from a small beaker very slowly, and finally, drop by drop, with constant stirring. The green precipitate of ferrous hydrate which forms at first is dissolved by stirring, leaving the solution perfectly clear, but subsequently, although the green precipitate dissolves, a whitish one remains, and the next drop

* By passing a current of carbonic acid through the boiling solution the sulphurous anhydride is soon expelled, and the operation requires no watching.

of ammonia increases the whitish precipitate or gives it a reddish tint, and finally the greenish precipitate remains undissolved even after vigorous stirring, and another drop of ammonia makes the whole precipitate appear green. If before this occurs the precipitate does not appear decidedly red in color, dissolve the green precipitate by a drop or two of hydrochloric

FIG. 50.



acid, and add a little bromine-water or ferric chloride solution (1 or 2 c.c.), then add ammonia as before, and repeat this until the reddish precipitate is obtained, and then the green coloration as described above. Dissolve this green precipitate in a very few drops of acetic acid (sp. gr. 1.04), when the precipitate remaining will be quite red in color, then add about

1 c.c. of acetic acid, and dilute the solution with boiling water, so that the beaker may be about four-fifths full. Heat to boiling, and when the solution has boiled one minute, lower the light, filter as rapidly as possible through a 5½-inch (140-mm.) filter, and wash once with hot water. The filtrate should run through clear, but in a few minutes it will appear cloudy by the precipitation of the ferric oxide, which has been formed by the exposure of the filtered solution to the air. The points to be observed are the red color of the precipitate and the clearness of the solution when it first runs through. Ferric phosphate being white, the red color of the precipitate shows that enough ferric salt was present in the solution to form ferric phosphate with all the phosphoric acid, and enough more to color the ferric phosphate red with the excess of ferric oxide.

When the precipitate has drained quite dry, pour about 15 c.c. of hydrochloric acid into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, warm it slightly so that the acid may condense on the sides and dissolve any adhering oxide, wash off the cover into the beaker, add about 10 c.c. of bromine-water, pour this on the filter containing the precipitate, allowing it to run around the edge of the filter, and let the solution run into a No. 1 Griffin's beaker. Wash out the beaker once or twice, and then wash the filter well with hot water. If the acid in the beaker is not sufficient to dissolve the precipitate completely, drop a little strong acid around the edge of the filter before washing it with hot water. The scaly film of difficultly soluble oxide which sometimes forms on boiling the acetate precipitate is caused by the presence of too much ammonium acetate, but when the instructions given above are carefully carried out it never appears. Evaporate the solution in the small beaker nearly to dryness to get rid of the excess of hydrochloric acid, add to it a filtered solution of 5 or 10 grammes of citric acid (according to the size of the precipitate of ferric oxide, etc.) dissolved in from 10 to 20 c.c. of water, then from 5 to 10 c.c. of magnesia-mixture and enough ammonia to make the solution faintly alkaline. Stand the beaker in cold water, and when the solution is perfectly cold, add to it one-half its volume of strong ammonia and stir it well. When the precipitate of ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate has begun to form, stop stirring, and allow it to stand in cold water for ten or fifteen

minutes, then stir vigorously several times at intervals of a few minutes, and allow it to stand overnight. Filter on a small ashless filter, and wash with a mixture of 2 parts of water and 1 part of ammonia containing 2.5 grammes of ammonium nitrate to 100 c.c.

Dry the filter and precipitate, and ignite them at a very low temperature at first so as to carbonize the filter without decomposing the precipitate, which may then readily be broken up with a platinum wire. Raise the heat gradually, and finally ignite at the highest temperature of the Bunsen burner. When the precipitate is perfectly white, cool and weigh. Then fill the crucible half full of hot water, add from 5 to 20 drops of hydrochloric acid, and heat until the precipitate has dissolved. Filter off on another small, ashless filter any silica or ferric oxide that may remain, ignite, and weigh. The difference between the two weights is the weight of magnesium pyrophosphate, which, multiplied by 0.27836, gives the weight of phosphorus.

When Titanium is Present.

When a solution of ferric chloride containing titanic and phosphoric acids is evaporated to dryness, a compound of titanic acid, phosphoric acid, and ferric oxide is formed, completely insoluble in dilute hydrochloric acid.*

Iron ores and pig-irons containing titanic acid require, therefore, a somewhat different method of treatment from that given above.

Dry and ignite the residue of graphite, silica, etc., from the solution of the pig-iron, so as to burn off all the carbon. Moisten this residue with cold water, add from 5 to 10 drops of sulphuric acid and enough hydrofluoric acid to dissolve the silica, and evaporate until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. While this is going on, proceed with the deoxidation of the filtrate as described above, but when the sulphurous acid has been driven off do not pass hydrogen sulphide through the solution, but cool it, and proceed with the acetate precipitation. Instead of dissolving the precipitate, after washing it as described above, dry the filter and precipitate in

* Published in Report on Methods employed in the Analysis of the "Iron Ores," Tenth Census U. S., xv. 512. I first noted this fact in 1878.

the funnel, being careful not to heat it so as to scorch the filter. Clean out any of the precipitate which may have adhered to the sides of the beaker in which the precipitation was made, by wiping it with filter-paper, and dry this paper with the filter and precipitate.

When the precipitate is quite dry, transfer to a small porcelain mortar. The precipitate may readily be detached from the filter by rubbing the sides of the latter together over a large piece of white, glazed paper, so that any little particles that fall out may be seen. Roll up the filter with the bits of paper which were used to wipe out the beaker, wrap a piece of platinum wire around it, burn it on the lid of the crucible in which the graphite residue was treated, and transfer the ash to the mortar. Grind the precipitate and ash with from 3 to 5 grammes of sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate, and transfer it to the crucible containing the residue which was treated by hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids. Clean the mortar and pestle by grinding a little more sodium carbonate, and add this to the other portion in the crucible. Fuse the whole for half an hour or more, cool, dissolve the fused mass in hot water, filter from the insoluble ferric oxide, etc.,* acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, add a few drops of acid ammonium sulphite, boil off all smell of sulphurous acid, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the hot solution to precipitate any arsenic that may be present. Pass a current of carbonic acid through the solution to expel the excess of hydrogen sulphide, filter off the arsenious sulphide, and to the filtrate add a sufficient amount of ferric chloride solution to combine with all the phosphoric acid as ferric phosphate and leave a slight excess. Add a slight excess of ammonia, which should throw down a red precipitate, while the solution is alkaline to test-paper; then add acetic acid to slightly acid reaction, boil, filter off the ferric phosphate and ferric oxide, and wash with hot water. Dissolve the precipitate in hydrochloric acid, allow the solution to run into a small beaker, evaporate until the solution is syrupy, add citric acid and magnesia-mixture,

* This ferric oxide, etc., contains all the titanium that was in the pig-iron as titanate of soda, and must be kept for the estimation of that element when it is to be determined.

and precipitate the ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate as described above. Unless the amount of phosphorus is very small, a second fusion of the insoluble residue of ferric oxide, etc., is necessary. The two filtrates can then be added together, acidulated with hydrochloric acid, and the remainder of the process carried out as directed above. To avoid the fusion of the acetate precipitate with sodium carbonate, which is always troublesome, the method for the determination of phosphorus may be modified (in many cases with advantage, and generally when titanium is not to be estimated) as follows:

After filtering off the insoluble matter,—graphite, silica, etc.,—ignite it, burn off the graphite, and treat the residue with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, evaporate down until the excess of sulphuric acid is driven off, and fuse with sodium carbonate. Treat the fused mass with water, and filter. Acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, and add it to the main solution, which has been deoxidized in the mean time with acid ammonium sulphite. Expel the last traces of sulphurous acid from the united filtrates by boiling and passing a current of carbonic acid through the solution, as previously directed. If the solution remains clear, pass hydrogen sulphide through it, and filter off the precipitated sulphides. Cool the solution, and make the acetate precipitation as directed on page 81. The only danger to be apprehended now is the tendency of titanic acid to separate out and carry phosphoric acid with it when in the evaporation of the hydrochloric acid solution of the acetate precipitate the liquid becomes concentrated. To avoid this, the evaporation must be watched very carefully, and citric acid added as soon as the titanic acid begins to separate. Then, if the separation has not proceeded too far, the phosphoric acid may be precipitated in the usual way. If, however, the separation of titanic acid is not checked in time, proceed with the evaporation as directed on page 84, add 5 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid, and warm gently. The solution will nearly always clear, but if it does not, add citric acid and a slight excess of ammonia, and filter. Stand the filtrate aside, burn off and fuse the precipitate with sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, filter, acidulate the filtrate with

hydrochloric acid, add a little ferric chloride solution, a slight excess of ammonia, and acidulate with acetic acid. Boil, filter off the precipitate of ferric phosphate and oxide, dissolve in a little hydrochloric acid, allow the solution to run into a small beaker, evaporate down, and add it to the ammoniacal filtrate from the separated titanic acid obtained above. Add excess of magnesia-mixture, and precipitate the phosphoric acid in the usual way. When the solution becomes cloudy after deoxidation with acid ammonium sulphite, and remains so after acidulating with hydrochloric acid, proceed as directed above, but dry, and ignite the filter containing the precipitate by hydrogen sulphide and that on which the acetate precipitate was filtered, fuse with sodium carbonate, treat with water, filter, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, pass hydrogen sulphide through the solution, filter, add a little ferric chloride solution, and precipitate by ammonia and acetic acid. Add the solution of this precipitate, after filtering it off, to the solution of the main acetate precipitate, and proceed as before.

Instead of adding citric acid and magnesia-mixture to the solution of the acetate precipitate, Fresenius,* and afterwards Spiller,† advised the method of adding citric acid, excess of ammonia, and ammonium sulphide, filtering off the precipitated ferric sulphide, and, after evaporating to small bulk, adding magnesia-mixture and ammonia. When the bulk of the iron precipitate is not too great, this is quite unnecessary, for many determinations have shown that with an excess of magnesia-mixture, ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate is absolutely insoluble in both ferric-ammonium citrate and ammonium-aluminum citrate.

The precipitate is also insoluble in ammonia-water (1 part of ammonia to 2 parts of water).

The Molybdate Method.

Svanberg and Struve‡ first discovered the reaction on which this method is based, and Sonnenschein § first used it quantitatively. Dissolve 5 grammes of drillings in a No. 4 Griffin's beaker, in 80 c.c. nitric acid (1.2

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* Jour. für Pr. Chem., xlv. 258.

† Jour. Chem. Soc. (2), i.. 148.

‡ Jour. für Pr. Chem., xliv. 291.

§ Ibid., liii. 339.

sp. gr.). Evaporate to dryness in the air-bath, replace the cover, and heat for one hour at a temperature of about 200° C. in order to decompose all the carbonaceous matter,* otherwise the precipitation of the phospho-molybdate will be incomplete. Allow the beaker to cool, dissolve the precipitate in 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness to render the silica insoluble, redissolve in 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and evaporate carefully until the excess of hydrochloric acid is driven off. Add 30 c.c. nitric acid and evaporate nearly dry, add nitric acid again and evaporate to drive off all the hydrochloric acid, add from 50 to 100 c.c. molybdate solution,† heat it to 40° C. in a water-bath carefully kept at this temperature, and allow it to stand in the bath for about four hours. Filter on a small, washed filter, and wash thoroughly with dilute molybdate solution (1 part of solution to 1 part of water) until a drop of the filtrate gives no reaction for iron with potassium ferrocyanide. Stand the filtrate aside in a warm place to see whether any further precipitation of ammonium phospho-molybdate takes place; if it does, it must be filtered off and treated like the main precipitate. Pour 2 or 3 c.c. strong ammonia on the precipitate, stir it up with a fine jet of hot water, and allow the solution to run into the flask or beaker in which the precipitation of phospho-molybdate was made. When it has all run through the filter, replace the flask or beaker by a small beaker of a little over 100 c.c. capacity, remove any phospho-molybdate that may have adhered to the sides of the original flask or beaker, by means of the ammoniacal filtrate, and then pour this back on the filter and allow it to run through into the small beaker. Wash out the beaker or flask with hot water and pour it on the filter with the addition of a little more ammonia. Unless the precipitate of phospho-molybdate is very large, this amount of ammonia should dissolve it, and a very little more washing should be sufficient. If the precipitate is very large, it may be necessary to use more ammonia and more wash-water, but under all circumstances the amount of ammonia and of wash-water should be as small as is consistent with perfect solution of the precipitate and

* In 1877 I discovered the necessity for destroying the carbonaceous matter, and communicated the fact to Hunt and Peters, who mentioned it in the Metallurgical Review, ii. 365.

† See page 59.

thorough washing of the beaker and filter. When the precipitate is small, the filtrate and washings should amount to about 25 c.c. Neutralize the solution with strong hydrochloric acid; if the yellow phospho-molybdate begins to precipitate, add ammonia until it redissolves, and if there should remain a flocculent white precipitate, probably silica, after the solution is quite alkaline, filter it off. Then to the cold alkaline liquid add, very slowly, 10 c.c. magnesia-mixture, stirring constantly, and after the magnesia-mixture is all in, add one-third the volume of the solution of strong ammonia and stir vigorously. It is well to stand the beaker in cold water and stir the solution several times after the precipitate has begun to crystallize out. After standing about four hours, it may be filtered off on a very small ashless filter and washed with dilute ammonia-water (1 part ammonia, 0.9 sp. gr., to 2 parts water) containing 2.5 grammes ammonium nitrate to the 100 c.c. Dry, ignite very carefully to burn off the carbonaceous matter, and finally heat for ten minutes over the blast-lamp to volatilize any molybdic acid that may have been precipitated with the ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate, cool, and weigh. Fill the crucible half full of hot water, add from 5 to 20 drops hydrochloric acid, and heat for a few minutes to dissolve the magnesium pyrophosphate. Pour the contents of the crucible on a small ashless filter, wash, ignite, and weigh the small residue that may remain undissolved. The difference between the two weights is the weight of magnesium pyrophosphate, which contains 27.836 per cent. phosphorus.

Many chemists, following Eggertz,* prefer to weigh the yellow phospho-molybdate direct instead of dissolving it and precipitating as ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate. In this event take 1 gramme of the drillings and proceed exactly as directed above, but use only about one-third the amount of nitric and hydrochloric acids for the solution. Before adding the molybdate solution, the volume of the filtrate from the silica should amount to only about 25 c.c. Add 50 c.c. of the molybdate solution, allow it to stand four hours at a temperature of 40° C., and filter off the precipitated phospho-molybdate on a Gooch crucible; wash first with

* Jour. für Pr. Chem., lxxix. 496.

dilute molybdate solution, and finally with water containing 1 per cent. of nitric acid, dry in an air-bath heated to 120° C., and weigh as ammonium phospho-molybdate, containing 1.63 per cent. of phosphorus. In the absence of a Gooch crucible, use counterpoised filters * for weighing the phospho-molybdate. The points of special importance are:

First, the necessity for destroying all the carbonaceous matter by heating the nitric acid solution, after evaporation, to a sufficiently high temperature to effect this with certainty.

Second, the avoidance of the presence of hydrochloric acid in the final solution before precipitating by molybdate solution.

Third, when the phospho-molybdate is weighed directly, the necessity for rendering the silica insoluble.

Fourth, the danger of heating the solution above 40° C. after adding the molybdate solution, as arsenic, when present, precipitates with the phosphorus if the solution is heated to a higher temperature.

Fifth, the danger of causing a precipitation of molybdic acid with the phospho-molybdate by heating the solution to a temperature approximating 100° C.

The Combination Method.

Riley † was the first to suggest the precipitation of phosphorus as phospho-molybdate, preceded by a separation of the phosphoric acid from the mass of the ferric chloride by deoxidation and precipitation by the acetate method. This method was worked out afterwards by A. Wendel, of the Albany and Rensselaer Steel Company, S. Peters, of the Burden Iron Company, and J. L. Smith. ‡

Proceed as directed for the determination of phosphorus by the *Acetate Method*, using 1 gramme of borings and proportional amounts of reagents until having dissolved the acetate precipitate in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in a very little nitric acid, dilute to 20 c.c. with water, add a slight excess of ammonia, redissolve the precipitated ferric oxide in nitric acid, and add 30 c.c. molybdate solution. Heat to 40° C. for an hour, filter, wash with water containing 1 per cent. of nitric acid, dry, and weigh.

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* See page 28.

† Jour. Chem. Soc., 1878, i. 104.

‡ Chem. News, xlv. 195.

When Titanium is Present.

When determining phosphorus in pig-irons containing titanium, burn off the residue of carbon, silica, etc., treat it with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, evaporate, and heat until the greater part of the sulphuric acid is driven off. Fuse with 2 or 3 grammes of sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, filter, acidulate the filtrate with nitric acid, add 50 c.c. molybdate solution, and heat to 40° C. for four hours. Filter, wash, and add this precipitate to the one obtained in the filtrate from the carbon, silica, etc. If any slight insoluble matter should remain on the filter upon dissolving in ammonia the phospho-molybdate obtained in the filtrate from the carbon, silica, etc., burn it, fuse it with sodium carbonate, and test it also for phosphorus.

The composition of the dried ammonium phospho-molybdate seems to vary very much, the percentage of phosphorus in it being given by various authorities from 1.27 to 1.75. It seems to depend upon various circumstances, such as the presence or absence of hydrochloric acid in the solution, the degree of acidity, the temperature at which the precipitation is effected, the length of time the solution stands before the precipitate is filtered off, the size of the precipitate, the state of concentration of the solution, and even the amounts of the iron and ammonium salts present.

This fact must be borne in mind when the phosphorus is determined by direct weighing of the phospho-molybdate, and every effort must be used to effect the precipitations always under as nearly as possible the same conditions.

RAPID METHODS.

Volumetric Method.*

Reduction by Zinc and Titration by Permanganate Solution.

This method gives an indirect determination of phosphorus by means of the estimation of the molybdic acid in the ammonium phospho-molybdate,

* This method is the one prepared by the sub-committee on Methods of the International Steel Standards Committee of the United States. It is by far the best method known, and the results obtained by it are exceedingly accurate when the details are carefully observed. The sub-committee consists of W. P. Barba, A. A. Blair, T. M. Drown, C. B. Dudley (chairman), and P. W. Shimer.

in which form the phosphorus is precipitated. The molybdic acid is reduced to a lower state of oxidation by the reducing action of zinc and sulphuric acid, and the reduced oxide is titrated with a standardized permanganate solution, molybdic acid being again formed by the reaction.

FIG. 51.

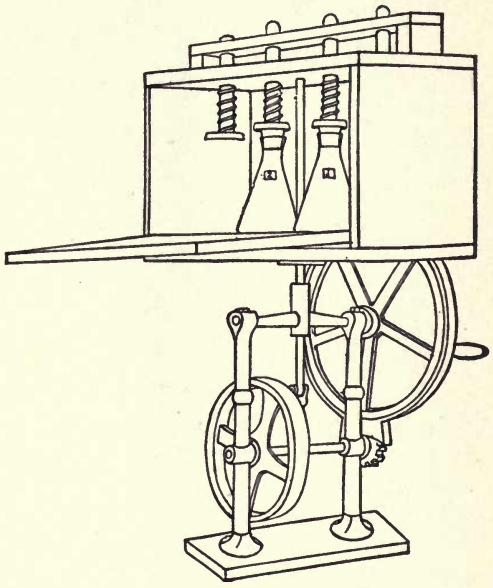


Fig. 51 shows a form of shaking-machine for shaking four flasks at once. The construction and method of use are apparent from the sketch.

Fig. 52 shows a form of reductor which is most convenient and efficient. The tube *a* is 0.018 m. inside diameter and 0.300 m. long. The small tube below the contraction with the stopcock *c* is 0.006 m. in inside diameter and 0.300 m. long below the stopcock. The tube is filled by placing at the point of contraction a flat piece of fine platinum gauze. On top of this is placed a plug of glass wool, about 8 mm. thick, and then asbestos, previously treated with concentrated hydrochloric acid, thoroughly washed, ignited, and diffused in water, is poured into the reductor tube until it forms a coating on top of the glass wool not over 1 mm. thick. This makes a filter which prevents very small pieces of zinc or other materials from being carried through. It is necessary to clean and refill the tube from time to time, as the filter after some use becomes clogged and the liquid passes too slowly. The tube is filled, as shown in the cut, with granulated amalgamated zinc. The reductor tube is fixed at such a height that when the block is removed from under the flask *f*, the latter may readily be detached from the tube and removed without disturbing the apparatus.

Fig. 53 shows the burette arranged for running the potassium perman-

ganate directly into the flask, and needs no explanation. It should be carefully calibrated.

FIG. 52.

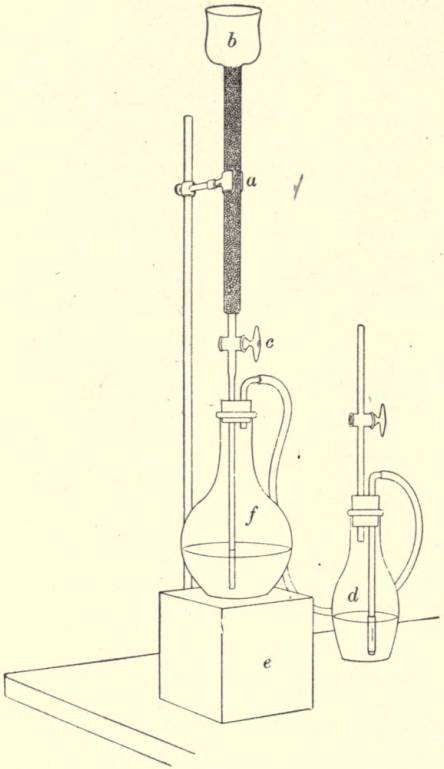
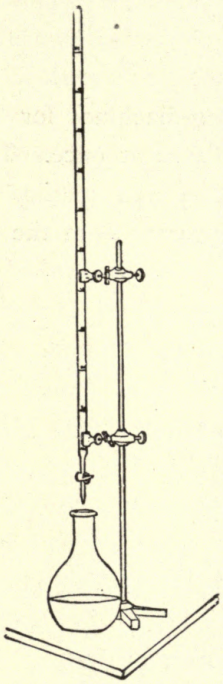


FIG. 53.



The various beakers, flasks, graduates, etc., required by this method need no special comment.

Reagents.

Nitric Acid.—Nitric acid of 1.135 sp. gr., made by mixing C. P. nitric acid (1.42 sp. gr.) with about three parts of distilled water.

Strong Sulphuric Acid.—The C. P. material of 1.84 sp. gr.

Dilute Sulphuric Acid.—Sulphuric acid 2½ per cent., by volume, made by diluting 25 c.c. of concentrated C. P. sulphuric acid to 1 litre with distilled water.

Strong Ammonia.—The C. P. material of 0.90 sp. gr.

Dilute Ammonia (0.96 sp. gr.).—Made by mixing concentrated C. P. ammonia-water of 0.90 sp. gr. with about one and a half times its volume of distilled water.

Strong Solution of Potassium Permanganate, for oxidizing the phosphorus and carbonaceous matter in the nitric acid solution of a steel. Made by dissolving from 12.5 to 15 grammes of crystallized potassium permanganate in 1 litre of distilled water and filtering through asbestos.

Standard Solution of Potassium Permanganate, for titrating the reduced solutions of ammonium phospho-molybdate. Made by dissolving 2 grammes of crystallized potassium permanganate in 1 litre of distilled water and filtering through asbestos. This solution is standardized as follows. Place from 0.15 to 0.25 gramme of thoroughly cleaned soft steel wire, in which the iron has been carefully determined, in each of three 125 c.c. Erlenmeyer flasks, and pour into each of the flasks 30 c.c. of distilled water and 10 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid. Cover with a small watch-glass and heat until solution is complete. Add a sufficient amount of the strong solution of potassium permanganate to oxidize the iron and destroy the carbonaceous matter, being careful to avoid an excess which would cause a precipitate of manganese dioxide. Should this occur, redissolve it by adding a very few drops of sulphurous acid and boil off every trace of the latter. Allow the solution in the flasks to cool and add to each 10 c.c. of dilute ammonia. Pass through the reductor and titrate in the flask.

In all cases the mode of procedure in using the reductor should be as follows. Everything being clean and in good order from previous treatment with dilute sulphuric acid, and washing with distilled water, and the flask being attached to the filter pump, pour 100 c.c. of warm dilute sulphuric acid into the funnel and open the stopcock *c*. When only a little remains in the funnel forming the top of the reduction tube, transfer the solution to be reduced to the funnel. This solution should be hot but not boiling. Pour some of the dilute sulphuric acid into the vessel which contained the solution to be reduced to wash it, and when only a little solution is left in the funnel as before, add this to the funnel in such a way as to wash it and follow with about 200 c.c. more of warm dilute sulphuric

acid and finally with 50 c.c. of hot distilled water. In no case allow the funnel to get empty, and close the stopcock *c* when there is still a little of the wash-water left in the funnel above the surface of the zinc. This precaution prevents air from passing into the reductor tube. A blank determination is made by passing through the reductor a solution containing a mixture of 10 c.c. strong sulphuric acid, 10 c.c. dilute ammonia, and 50 c.c. water; preceded and followed by the dilute acid as described above. The amount of potassium permanganate required to give this blank a distinct color is subtracted from the amount required to give the same color to each reduced solution.

To get the value of the permanganate solution, multiply the weight of iron wire taken by the percentage of iron in the wire and divide by the number of cubic centimetres of potassium permanganate in terms of metallic iron. Multiply this result by 0.88163, the ratio of molybdic acid to iron, and the product by 0.01794, the ratio of phosphorus to molybdic acid, and the result is the value of 1 c.c. of the permanganate solution in terms of phosphorus. The ratio of molybdic acid to iron given above is that found when a known amount of molybdic acid in sulphuric acid solution is passed through the reductor in the manner described above and then titrated with potassium permanganate solution whose strength in terms of metallic iron is known. The reduction of the molybdic acid in the reductor in this case is to the form $Mo_{24}O_{37}$. The ratio of phosphorus to molybdic acid given above is that found by the analysis of the yellow precipitate of ammonium phospho-molybdate obtained from nitric acid solution of iron under varying conditions.

Sulphurous Acid.—A strong solution of the gas in water. Siphons of the liquefied gas may be obtained in the market.

Acid Ammonium Sulphite.—The strong C. P. solution of the reagent diluted with 10 parts of water.

Ferrous Sulphate.—Crystals of the salt free from phosphorus.

Sodium Thiosulphate.—Crystals of the salt free from phosphorus.

These four reagents are for reducing the excess of binoxide of manganese thrown down in oxidizing the carbonaceous matter in the nitric acid solutions of the steels. Any one may be used.

Molybdate Solution.—Place in a beaker 100 grammes of pure molybdic anhydride, mix it thoroughly with 400 c.c. cold distilled water and add 80 c.c. strong ammonia (0.90 sp. gr.). When solution is complete, filter and pour the filtered solution slowly and with constant stirring into a mixture of 400 c.c. strong nitric acid (1.42 sp. gr.) and 600 c.c. distilled water. Add 50 milligrammes of microcosmic salt dissolved in a little water, agitate thoroughly, allow the precipitate to settle for twenty-four hours, and filter before using.

Acid Ammonium Sulphate Solution, for washing the precipitate of ammonium phospho-molybdate. To 1 litre of water add 15 c.c. of strong ammonia (0.90 sp. gr.) and 25 c.c. strong sulphuric acid (1.84 sp. gr.).

Amalgamated Zinc.—Dissolve 5 grammes of mercury in 25 c.c. strong nitric acid diluted with an equal bulk of water, dilute to 250 c.c. and transfer to a stout flask of about 1000 c.c. capacity. Pour into it 500 grammes of granulated zinc which will pass through a 20-mesh sieve, but not through a 30-mesh. Shake it thoroughly for a minute or two and then pour off the solution, wash the zinc thoroughly with distilled water, dry, and preserve in a glass bottle for use.

Operation.

Weigh 2 grammes, or, in case of steels containing over 0.15 per cent. phosphorus, 1 gramme of the drillings and transfer them to a 250 c.c. Erlenmeyer flask, pour into the flask 100 c.c. of nitric acid (1.135 sp. gr.) and cover with a small watch-glass. Heat until the solution is complete and nitric oxide is boiled off. Add 10 c.c. of the strong potassium permanganate solution, boil until the pink color has disappeared and manganese dioxide separates. Continue the boiling for several minutes, then remove from the source of heat and add a few drops of sulphurous acid, a small crystal of ferrous sulphate, or a solution of 0.5 gramme of sodium hyposulphite in 10 c.c. of water, repeating the addition at short intervals until the precipitated manganese dioxide is dissolved. Boil two minutes longer, place the flask in a vessel of cold water, or allow it to stand in the air until it feels cool to the hand, and then pour in

40 c.c. of dilute ammonia (0.96 sp. gr.). The precipitated ferric hydrate will redissolve when the liquid is thoroughly mixed. When the solution is about the temperature of the hand, say 35° C., add 40 c.c. of molybdate solution at the ordinary temperature, close the flask with a rubber stopper, and shake it for five minutes, either by hand or in the machine, Fig. 51. Allow the precipitate to settle for a few minutes, filter on a 0.090 m. filter, and wash with acid ammonium sulphate solution until 2 or 3 c.c. of the wash-water give no reaction for molybdenum with a drop of ammonium sulphide. Pour 5 c.c. of ammonia (0.90 sp. gr.) and 20 c.c. of water into the flask to dissolve any adhering ammonium phospho-molybdate and then pour it on the precipitate in the filter, allowing the filtrate to run into a 250 c.c. Griffin's beaker. Wash out the flask and wash the filter with water until the solution measures about 60 c.c. Add to the liquid in the beaker 10 c.c. strong sulphuric acid, and pass it through the reductor exactly in the manner described for the solution of ferric sulphate in standardizing the solution of potassium permanganate, being careful to keep the end of the small tube of the reductor just below the surface of the liquid in the flask. By adding the strong sulphuric acid to the ammoniacal solution immediately before passing it through the reductor it is heated sufficiently by the chemical action to insure thorough reduction. In washing be careful that no air passes into the reductor, and when the water has been drawn through, leaving a little still remaining in the funnel, close the stopcock, detach the flask F, wash off the drawn-out portion of the reductor tube into it, and titrate the solution with the standard permanganate. The reductor should be so arranged that the whole reduction occupies about three or four minutes. The solution that passes through should be bright green in color. In adding the permanganate, the green color disappears first, and the solution becomes brown, then pinkish yellow, and ultimately colorless. Continue the addition of the permanganate drop by drop, shaking the flask vigorously until the solution assumes a faint pink coloration, which remains after standing one minute. Subtract from the reading of the burette the amount given by a blank determination, obtained exactly as described under the method given above for standard-

izing the permanganate solution, multiply the number of c.c. so obtained by the value of 1 c.c. in terms of phosphorus, multiply by 100 and divide by the weight taken, and the result is the percentage of phosphorus in the steel.

When a large number of analyses are to be carried along at once the following modification is recommended. Obtain the yellow precipitate and dissolve in ammonia exactly as described above, except that the solution is allowed to run into the flask in which the precipitation was made, and the washing of the filter is continued until the solution amounts to 75 c.c. Add now to the flask 5 grammes of pulverized zinc, 100-mesh, pouring it into the flask through a funnel to prevent any zinc clinging to the sides of the flask. Then add to the flask 15 c.c. strong sulphuric acid (1.84 sp. gr.). This is most conveniently done in practice by letting it run in from a glass-stoppered burette. Close the flask at once with a rubber stopper carrying a glass tube bent twice at right angles, the farther arm dipping into a beaker containing a saturated solution of sodium bicarbonate. The flask should now stand undisturbed for about thirty minutes, when, if all action has ceased, it is ready to titrate with permanganate. The solution should be green, not brown. The temperature of the solution at the end of thirty minutes is about 40° C. and the titration succeeds best if done at this temperature. But the flask may stand a couple of hours without reoxidation of the reduced molybdic acid, and may then be successfully titrated. If the solution changes in color to brown the determination should be rejected, as the result will be too low. A blank should be made by adding to another flask 65 c.c. of water, 10 c.c. of dilute ammonia (0.96 sp. gr.), 5 grammes of the 100-mesh zinc, added in the manner described, and 15 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid (1.84 sp. gr.). This flask should be treated the same as the others and the amount of permanganate it uses up should be deducted from the amount required by each flask containing a test. When this method is used the reduction is practically complete to molybdic acid, so that the factor 0.85714 must be used instead of 0.88163.

Example.

0.1745 gramme of wire requires 50 c.c. of permanganate to give the required color. A blank determination gave 0.1 c.c., so that the wire actually required 49.9 c.c. permanganate. The wire contained 99.87 per cent. of iron, then $0.1745 \times 0.9987 \div 49.9$ equals 0.0034923, or 1 c.c. of permanganate equals 0.0034923 gramme metallic iron. Then multiplying the value in iron by the ratio of molybdic acid to iron 0.88163 or 0.85714 and the product by the ratio of phosphorus to molybdic acid 0.01794, we have $0.0034923 \times 0.88163 \times 0.01794$ equals 0.000055238, or 1 c.c. permanganate equals 0.000055238 gramme of phosphorus. Again, the precipitated ammonium phospho-molybdate from 2 grammes of steel required 35.6 c.c. permanganate less blank 0.1 c.c. equals 35.5 c.c.; $35.5 \times 0.000055238 \times 100 \div 2$ equals 0.098 per cent. phosphorus.

Notes and Precautions.

It will be observed that the method given above oxidizes the phosphorus in the iron by means of nitric acid, completes and perfects this oxidation and possibly neutralizes the effect of the carbon present by means of potassium permanganate, and then separates the phosphoric acid from the iron by means of molybdic acid. The molybdic acid in the yellow phosphomolybdate is subsequently determined by means of potassium permanganate, the phosphorus being determined from its relation to the molybdic acid in this precipitate. The method given above applies to steel and wrought iron, but it is not yet recommended for pig-iron.

It is hardly necessary to say that all the chemicals and materials used in the analysis are assumed to be free from impurities that will injuriously affect the result.

1.135 sp. gr. nitric acid apparently oxidizes the phosphorus just as successfully as a stronger one, while by its use solution is sufficiently rapid, and there is less trouble during the subsequent filtration due to silica.

The boiling of the solution to remove nitrous acid and assist the action

of the oxidizing permanganate seems to be essential. Some steels may not require 10 c.c. of the permanganate and some, like washed metal high in carbon, may require even more. It is essential that enough should be added to cause a precipitation of manganese dioxide and to give a strong pink color to the solution. This color gradually disappears on boiling. Less is required if the permanganate is added in small successive portions. Boiling two minutes after reducing the manganese dioxide removes any nitrous acid that may be formed by that operation.

In washing the yellow precipitate it shows some disposition to crawl up to the top of the filter. Care should therefore be taken to have the filter fit the funnel so closely that even if the precipitate does crawl over the top it will not be lost while washing the filter completely to the top. It is very easy to leave enough molybdic acid in the top of the filter, even though the washings are tested, to cause an error of .005 per cent. in the determination.

It is best to make up molybdate solution rather frequently. It is also best to keep it in the dark at a temperature not above 28° or 30° C. Much of the so-called molybdic acid of the market is ammonium molybdate or molybdate of some other alkali. This fact cannot be ignored in making up the molybdate solution. A series of experiments with various molybdic acids and alkaline molybdates obtained in the market indicates that if the amount of molybdic acid in the solution is that called for by the formula, irrespective of whether this amount is furnished by pure molybdic acid or by any of the commercial molybdates referred to, the result will be much nearer the truth than if this is not done. Good molybdic acid is the best, but the alkaline molybdates can be used. The amount of molybdic acid in these molybdates can readily be determined by dissolving 0.1000 gramme in 60 c.c. of water to which 10 c.c. of dilute ammonia have been added, filtering, adding 10 c.c. strong C. P. sulphuric acid, and passing through the reductor as above described. The method given in the example above enables the amount of molybdic acid to be determined. If the molybdic acid as obtained in the market, or the ammonia used in dissolving it, contains any soluble silicates, the resulting molybdate solution will be yellowish in color and the determination made with this solution

will be high, owing apparently to ammonium silico-molybdate being dragged down with the phospho-molybdate. Treatment of the molybdate solution with microcosmic salt, as described, overcomes this difficulty and gives a perfectly colorless molybdate solution. A molybdate solution tinged with yellow should never be used. It will be observed that the molybdate solution recommended above contains much less ammonium nitrate than is given by many of the formulas now in use. Experience shows that a molybdate solution made on this formula keeps much better than those containing more ammonium nitrate. It will also be observed that the amount used for each determination is less than many methods employ. It is believed that the amount recommended is sufficient and that the ammonium nitrate required to assist the formation of the yellow precipitate is furnished by the 40 c.c. of dilute ammonia added to the nitric acid solution of the steel. Of course the molybdate solution recommended above cannot be used for other work interchangeably with that made on the older formulas, on account of lack of ammonium nitrate.

The directions in regard to the reductor, both as to making and use, should be strictly followed. By the use of the stopcock and the amalgamated zinc, and by keeping a little liquid in the funnel, the same blank can be obtained from a reductor almost continuously, even though two or three days of standing intervene between blanks. It is, however, always advisable to treat with dilute sulphuric acid and wash before using, even though only one night has elapsed since the last previous use. If the solution to be reduced does not contain enough acid or is not warm enough, the reduction will not be complete. Care should therefore be taken not to allow too much mixing of the dilute sulphuric acid with the solution to be reduced, either in the funnel or in the reductor tube itself. The best asbestos to use is the mineral known as actinolite, but any fibrous mineral which will act as a filter and not be dissolved by the acids used may be employed. Glass wool alone will not do, as a good filter is essential in order that neither small particles of zinc nor impurities in the zinc may be drawn down into the flask with the reduced solution. The consumption of zinc is very small.

In testing with ammonium sulphide, to see whether the washing of the

yellow precipitate is complete, good results are obtained by putting two or three drops of yellow ammonium sulphide into a few cubic centimetres of distilled water, and allowing the washings to drop into this solution from the stem of the funnel. If iron is present in the washings it will show while the solution is still alkaline. By allowing the washings to continue running into the ammonium sulphide solution it soon becomes acid, when molybdenum, if any is present, shows by a more or less brownish color. If the acid solution is pure white from separated sulphur the washing is complete.

Since the acidity of the solution in which the yellow precipitate is formed has an influence on its composition, it is quite desirable that the sp. gr. of the 1.135 nitric acid and of the 0.96 ammonia should be taken with some care. The temperature at which the figures are correct is 15° C. It is best to use the Westphal balance in determining these gravities, but, failing this, a sufficiently delicate hydrometer may be employed.

In using the reduction with 5 grammes of 100-mesh zinc, it will be observed that as the zinc becomes nearly all dissolved a blackish residue remains. This residue seems to be metallic lead. It disappears slowly during the titration and apparently uses up some permanganate. It takes a little longer to secure a satisfactory end reaction with the 100-mesh zinc, as the pink color fades out several times before it will remain permanent for one minute. It is essential that air should be excluded from the flask after the reduction is nearly complete, and it is for this purpose that the sodium bicarbonate solution is used. A tendency to suck the soda solution back into the reducing flask will be noticed, due to the cooling of the flask. The reduction should be made in a place free from draughts.

With the amalgamated zinc in the reductor made as above described the blank generally uses up about 0.1 c.c. of the standard permanganate solution. The blank when using the reduction by means of 5 grammes 100-mesh zinc usually amounts to 0.6 c.c. of the standard permanganate, and may be higher. Pulverized zinc is rarely free from sulphides, and while this seems not to be a very important matter, it is nevertheless not recommended to use, either in the reductor or in the flask reduction, a zinc that gives a high blank.

If the amount of sulphurous acid or other reagent added to the nitric acid solution to remove the precipitated binoxide of manganese is insufficient, a brown stain will be left on the filter-paper after the yellow precipitate is dissolved in ammonia. This may occur even though the nitric acid solution looks clear, and as no harm can arise from a slight excess of the reducing agent, it is usually more satisfactory to add an excess. It is not desirable to add the reducing agent to the solution while boiling, as under such circumstances it frequently boils over.

It is rather essential to use the dilute sulphuric acid warm, so that the general temperature of the reductor may be kept up.

A good method for cleaning the wire in standardizing the potassium permanganate is as follows. Take a round lead-pencil and make a hole in it with a pin near the end. Insert the end of the wire in this hole and revolve the pencil until there are two turns of the wire around it. Hold the turns firmly in one hand and cut the wire so that about 0.75 m. will remain attached to the pencil. Draw this wire through a piece of folded fine sand-paper several times and then several times through a piece of filter-paper. Seize the wire near the pencil with the filter-paper and cut off the part which was wound around the pencil and remove it. Then insert the end of the cleaned wire in the hole and revolve the pencil with one hand, holding the wire in the filter-paper in the other hand, until it is all wound loosely on the pencil. Push the coiled wire off the end of the pencil. It is now in a convenient form for weighing.

Alkalimetric Method.*

The principle on which this method is based is the acidity of ammonium phospho-molybdate, which, according to the following reaction, requires 23 molecules of alkali for its neutralization.

$$2[(NH_4)_3 12MoO_3PO_4] + 46NaHO + H_2O = 2\,[(NH_4)_2HPO_4] + (NH_4)_2 MoO_4 + 23Na_2MoO_4 + 23H_2O.$$

* This method was first suggested by Mr. C. E. Manby and subsequently modified by Mr. James O. Handy, of Pittsburg, to whose work many of the details are due. It is quite extensively used and is extremely rapid. Mr. Handy kindly prepared the essential part of this description.

Reagents.

Molybdate Solution.—The solution described in the last method (page 97) may be used.

Nitric Acid for Washing Precipitates.—A 1 per cent. solution of nitric acid: add 13 c.c. of strong nitric acid (1.42 sp. gr.) to 1 litre of water.

Potassium Nitrate Solution.—A 1 per cent. solution of potassium nitrate: dissolve 1 gramme of potassium nitrate in 1 litre of water.

Phenolphthalein Solution.—A 0.2 per cent. solution of phenolphthalein: dissolve 1 gramme of phenolphthalein in 500 c.c. of 95 per cent. alcohol.

Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide.—To 100 grammes pure sodium hydroxide add an amount of water just insufficient to completely dissolve it. Pour it into a tall cylinder, close the cylinder and allow the insoluble matter, sodium carbonate, etc., to settle. The clear liquid will be practically free from carbonate. Dilute it in the proportion of 30 c.c. to 2 litres of water.

Standard Nitric Acid.—Measure 2 litres of water into a glass-stoppered bottle, add 20 c.c. of nitric acid (1.42 sp. gr.) and mix thoroughly. Measure accurately 10 c.c. of the "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide." Place them in a small flask, add 40 c.c. of water and 3 drops of "Phenolphthalein Solution." Drop "Standard Nitric Acid" from a carefully calibrated burette into the flask until the pink color just disappears. If the solutions are not of the same strength, dilute the stronger with water until they agree. For example, if it required 9.5 c.c. of nitric acid to discharge the color, return the nitric acid from the burette to the bottle and dilute it according to the following proportion: 9.5 : 10 = 2030 (the volume of nitric acid remaining) : 2136.9.

Add 106.9 c.c. of water to the nitric acid, and after thoroughly mixing it retest as above.

If it should require 10.5 c.c. of the nitric acid solution to discharge the color, dilute the sodium hydroxide solution according to the proportion: 10 : 10.5 = 2010 (the volume of sodium hydroxide remaining) : 2110.5.

Add 100.5 c.c. of water to the solution of sodium hydroxide, mix thoroughly, and retest.

The standard solutions being equal in strength, standardize them as follows:

Titrate the ammonium phospho-molybdate obtained from a steel in which the phosphorus has been carefully determined, and divide the percentage of phosphorus by the number of c.c. of the "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide" required to neutralize it. The result is the value of the "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide." *

Operation.

Precipitate the ammonium phospho-molybdate from 2 grammes of the steel exactly as described in the last method "Reduction by Zinc and Titration by Permanganate Solution."

Filter and wash first with "Nitric Acid for Washing Precipitates" and then with "Potassium Nitrate Solution" until the washings are no longer acid. Place the filter and precipitate in the flask in which the precipitation was made and run in from a pipette 10 c.c. of the "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide." If, after agitation, this is insufficient to dissolve the precipitate, add 10 c.c. more, and if necessary continue the additions until the precipitate is dissolved. Dilute to 50 c.c., add 3 drops "Phenolphthalein Solution," and add from a burette "Standard Nitric Acid" until the pink color disappears. Subtract the number of c.c. of "Standard Nitric Acid" used from the number of c.c. of "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide" taken to dissolve the precipitate, and the remainder will be the number of c.c. of the "Standard Solution of Sodium Hydroxide" required to neutralize the ammonium phospho-molybdate. From this calculate the amount of phosphorus in the steel.

Direct Weighing of the Phospho-Molybdate.

Instead of using the volumetric method, some chemists prefer to weigh the yellow precipitate. Mr. Wood's method † is as follows:

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* Mr. Handy prefers to have the solutions of such strength that 1 c.c. = 0.0002 gramme phosphorus. To obtain this result calculate the weight of phosphorus to which each c.c. of the solutions is equivalent and dilute them as required.

† Communicated to the author. Mr. Wood states that the details adapting this to a "rapid method" were worked out by Mr. J. A. Nichols, of the Homestead Works.

Dissolve 1.63 grammes steel in a six-ounce Erlenmeyer flask in 30 c.c. warm nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), place the flask over a Bunsen flame and evaporate down to 10 or 15 c.c., hastening the evaporation by blowing a gentle current of air into the flask.

Heat 50 c.c. of molybdate solution to 50° or 55° C., add it to the solution in the flask, and shake well. Complete precipitation should take place in from three to five minutes. Filter on the pump in a 7 cm. Munktell's No. 1 filter which has previously been washed, dried at 100° C., and weighed. Wash with dilute nitric acid, suck dry, wash once with alcohol and thoroughly with ether, and place the filter containing the precipitate in a funnel in an air-bath heated to 110° C. The funnel in the bath is connected with the exhaust so that the precipitate and filter are thoroughly dried in from one to three minutes, according to the size of the precipitate. Weigh, and 1 milligramme of the precipitate will be equal to .001 per cent. of phosphorus in the steel.

In the case of pig-iron and spiegel, the metal, after solution in nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), is diluted with 20 c.c. water, 5 drops of hydrofluoric acid are then added, the solution is boiled for two or three minutes, filtered through asbestos on the pump, and concentrated to 15 c.c.

15 c.c. of chromic acid are added, the solution is boiled down again and precipitated as above. The hydrofluoric acid prevents the separation of gelatinous silica, but does not interfere with the precipitation of phosphorus.

This method will not work with ferro-manganese, as the combined carbon is not sufficiently oxidized and prevents the precipitation of all the phosphorus.

The solutions referred to above are prepared as follows:

Molybdic acid solution. To 1200 c.c. water add 700 c.c. ammonia (sp. gr. 0.88) and one pound molybdic acid; when the molybdic acid is dissolved add 300 c.c. nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.42), and cool. Pour this solution into a mixture of 4800 c.c. water and 2000 c.c. concentrated nitric acid. Filter for use after standing twenty-four hours.

Chromic acid solution: 1.42 sp. gr. nitric acid saturated with chromic acid.

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE.

The Acetate Method.

Dissolve 1 gramme of drillings in 15 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) in a No. 2 Griffin's beaker. Evaporate to dryness in the air-bath, and heat to decompose carbonaceous matter. Allow the beaker to cool, add 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, heat carefully until all the ferric oxide is dissolved, evaporate to dryness to get rid of all the nitric acid, redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and evaporate carefully until the solution is almost syrupy. Dilute with cold water to about 100 c.c., and filter off the insoluble matter, allowing the filtrate and washings to run into a No. 6 Griffin's beaker. In the case of steel or puddled iron the filtration may be omitted, the solution being poured into the large beaker, and the rinsings of the small beaker added. To the solution in the large beaker, which should amount to about 200 c.c., add a solution of sodium carbonate very slowly, stirring vigorously. The solution will finally become very dark red in color, and the precipitate formed will redissolve very slowly. Add the solution of sodium carbonate 2 or 3 drops at a time, stir well, and allow the solution to stand several minutes, to see whether or not the precipitate will redissolve. When, under these circumstances, a decided precipitate remains, add 2 drops of hydrochloric acid, stir well, and allow the solution to stand for some minutes; if the solution does not clear, add 2 drops more, and stir again. If the first part of the operation has been carefully conducted, this amount of hydrochloric acid will usually be sufficient, but if, for any reason, too large a precipitate has been formed, it may require a few drops more. It is important, however, that no more hydrochloric acid be added than just enough to redissolve the precipitate formed by the sodium carbonate, and, to insure this, the solution should be well stirred and allowed to stand a sufficient length of time after each addition of hydrochloric acid. The solution may be so dark in color that it is difficult to see when the precipitate does finally disappear, but by

standing the beaker on a piece of white paper the light reflected through the bottom of the beaker will greatly diminish the difficulty. When, under this method of procedure, the solution clears, add 2 grammes of sodium acetate dissolved in a few c.c. of water, stir well, and dilute the solution to about 700 c.c. with boiling water. Heat it to boiling, and allow it to boil for about ten minutes, then remove it from the tripod, and allow the precipitated ferric hydrate and acetate to settle. Decant the clear, supernatant fluid on a large washed filter, throw the precipitate on, and wash it two or three times with boiling water, allowing the filtrate to run into a large beaker or flask, from which it can be transferred to a platinum or porcelain dish and evaporated rapidly. When the precipitate has drained quite dry, by means of a platinum spatula transfer it to the beaker in which the precipitation was first made; dissolve the precipitate which remains adhering to the filter, and that which remains on the blade of the spatula, by pouring around the edge of the filter and on the spatula held over it 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid diluted with twice its volume of hot water, and heat the beaker containing the precipitate. Wash the filter free from ferric chloride with cold water, and heat the beaker containing the precipitate until the latter is dissolved. Cool the solution, and repeat the precipitation, filtration, and resolution of the precipitate precisely as in the first case, adding this filtrate to the first one. Precipitate, filter, and wash a third time in the same manner, evaporate all the filtrates together until they are reduced to about 300 c.c. in volume, and transfer this solution to a No. 3 beaker.

If during the evaporation any manganese has become oxidized by exposure to the air, it forms a hard ring on the side of the capsule, and may be dissolved, after the solution is poured into the beaker, by two or three drops of hydrochloric acid, and washed into the beaker. Should any ferric oxide separate out, pour the solution in the capsule through a small filter, allowing it to run into the beaker, wash the precipitate with hot water, dissolve it in a very few drops of dilute hydrochloric acid, and let it run into a No. 1 beaker. Add just enough solution of sodium car-

bonate to precipitate it, make it faintly acid with acetic acid, boil it, and filter into the main solution.

This solution now contains all the manganese, nickel, and cobalt and the greater part of the copper which may have been in the metal. Add to it 10 grammes of sodium acetate and a few drops of acetic acid, heat it to boiling, and pass a current of hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution for fifteen minutes. This will precipitate the copper, cobalt, and nickel. Filter off the black sulphides, boil the filtrate to expel the excess of hydrogen sulphide, let the solution cool somewhat, and add bromine-water in excess. If no precipitate forms at first, stand the solution, which should be colored by the bromine-water, in a warm place for an hour or two, to allow the precipitate of manganese dioxide to separate out. If a precipitate forms immediately, add bromine-water until, when the precipitate settles, the solution is strongly colored by it, and stand it aside for an hour or two. At the end of this time, the precipitate having settled and the supernatant fluid being still colored by the bromine, heat it carefully, finally to boiling, and expel the excess of bromine; allow the precipitate to settle, filter, wash very carefully, and avoid stirring up the precipitate when it is on the filter, as it has a tendency to go through. Dissolve the precipitate on the filter in sulphurous acid water containing a little hydrochloric acid; allow the solution to run into a platinum dish, and wash the filter well. A little of the sulphurous acid water will quickly dissolve any manganese dioxide which may adhere to the beaker in which it was precipitated, and this may be poured on the filter. Boil the solution in the dish to expel the excess of sulphurous acid, add from 5 to 20 c.c. of a clear filtered solution of microcosmic salt, heat to boiling, and add ammonia, drop by drop, with constant stirring. When the precipitate of ammonium-manganese phosphate begins to form, stop adding ammonia, and stir until the precipitate becomes crystalline. When this change occurs, add one more drop of ammonia; the additional precipitate formed will be curdy, but a few seconds' continued stirring at the boiling temperature will change it to the silky crystalline condition. Continue the addition of ammonia in exactly the same manner until the precipitate is all down and further additions of ammonia fail to change the silky appearance. Add a dozen drops of

ammonia in excess, remove the dish from the light, and stand it in ice-water until perfectly cold. Filter on an ashless filter, wash with cold water containing 10 grammes of ammonium nitrate (dissolved in water made faintly alkaline with ammonia and filtered) in 100 c.c. until the filtrate gives no reaction for hydrochloric acid, dry, ignite, and weigh as manganese pyrophosphate, which contains 38.74 per cent. manganese. During the precipitation of the ammonium-manganese phosphate the stirring must not be discontinued for an instant, as the solution has a great tendency to bump when the precipitate is allowed to settle. The crystalline condition of the precipitate, which is absolutely necessary for the success of the determination, can most readily be brought about by the means described above. It can, of course, be accomplished by adding an excess of ammonia at once, but it will require much more boiling and stirring than the method above described. The final precipitation as ammonium-manganese phosphate, due to Dr. Gibbs, is much the most accurate method known. A common practice, however, is to wash the bromine precipitate of hydrated manganese dioxide, dry, ignite, and weigh as manganoso-manganic oxide, which contains 72.05 per cent. manganese. There are two objections to this method of procedure: first, the difficulty of washing the manganese dioxide free from sodium salts; secondly, the uncertainty as to the exact state of oxidation of the ignited manganese oxide.

The first of these objections Eggertz claims to overcome by washing the precipitated manganese with water containing 1 per cent. of hydrochloric acid. It may also be overcome, or rather the danger may be avoided, by using no fixed alkalies. By this method, nearly neutralize the hydrochloric acid solution of the iron or steel by ammonia, then add a solution of ammonium carbonate exactly as directed above for sodium carbonate, and finally, instead of sodium acetate, add ammonium acetate (5 c.c. of ammonia slightly acidulated by acetic acid). Evaporate the filtrates obtained in this way to about 500 c.c., transfer to a flask of about 1 litre capacity, and cool. When perfectly *cold*, add 3 or 4 c.c. bromine, shake well, and when the solution is strongly colored all through by bromine, add an excess of ammonia, and heat to boiling. Filter, wash with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as manganoso-manganic oxide.

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The second objection seems, according to Pickering,* to be well founded, the amount of manganese in the ignited oxides varying from 69.688 per cent. to 74.997 per cent., according to the temperature to which they were heated and other undetermined conditions. This cause of error may be avoided by weighing the precipitate as manganous sulphide, containing 63.18 per cent. manganese. This method, due to H. Rose,† is carried out as follows. Ignite the oxide in a porcelain crucible, allow it to cool, mix it with five or six times its volume of flowers of sulphur, place the crucible on a triangle, and insert the bowl of a clay tobacco-pipe, which should be large enough to quite fill the top of the crucible and too large to reach to the precipitate. Pass through the stem a current of dry hydrogen until all air is expelled, heat the crucible gradually to as high a heat as a good Bunsen burner will produce, cool in the current of hydrogen, and weigh as manganous sulphide.

General Remarks on the Acetate Method.

The chief source of error in the acetate method, as it is usually practised, is in the addition of too much sodium acetate, whereby the manganous chloride is changed to manganous acetate, which, according to Kessler,‡ is readily decomposed to manganous oxide and acetic acid. Under these circumstances, a larger amount of manganese is precipitated with the iron than would be the case if a less amount of sodium acetate were added. When sodium acetate is added to ferric chloride, the reaction may be written, $6NaC_2H_3O_2,3H_2O + Fe_2Cl_6 = 6NaCl + Fe_2(C_2H_3O_2)_6 + 3H_2O$; and to precipitate the iron as ferric acetate in 1 gramme of metal would necessitate the use of 8 grammes of sodium acetate. But, as Kessler in the same article remarks, when a solution of ferric chloride is treated with sodium carbonate and hydrochloric acid exactly as described above, a liquid is formed which contains fourteen times its equivalent of *ferric hydrate* in solution. Consequently ½ gramme of sodium acetate would be sufficient to precipitate 1 gramme of iron as ferric hydrate and basic

* Chem. News, xliii. 226.

† Rose, Quant. Anal. (French ed.), p. 104.

‡ Chem. News, xxvii. 14.

acetate. In order, however, to precipitate the manganese as manganese dioxide by bromine, it is necessary to convert all the manganous chloride into manganous acetate: consequently an excess of sodium acetate is added before adding bromine. If, when making the acetate precipitation, the solution contains any ferrous chloride, a "brick-dust" precipitate is usually formed, which generally passes through the filter, and is very difficult to dissolve or manage in any way. It is usually the shortest and best plan, in this event, to start a fresh portion and throw away the other.

The Nitric Acid and Potassium Chlorate Method.

(*Ford's Method.*)

The acetate method is at best very tedious, and when the amount of manganese is very small it is of course desirable to work on larger amounts than 1 gramme of the sample, but in this event the iron precipitate is so large that it becomes very difficult to manage it properly. With Ford's method however, there is almost no limit to the amount which can be operated upon, and many experiments have shown that with proper precautions it is an extremely accurate process. The reaction on which the process is based was first noticed by Hannay * in 1878; but Ford † first worked out the method in its present practical form. Dissolve 5 grammes of borings in a No. 3 beaker in 60 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), evaporate down until the solution is almost syrupy, then add 100 c.c. strong nitric acid (1.4 sp. gr.) and 5 grammes potassium chlorate. Heat the solution to boiling either on the hot plate or on a tripod with a thin piece of sheet asbestos, about 1 inch (25 mm.) in diameter, on the centre of the wire gauze. Boil the solution fifteen minutes, remove the light, add 50 c.c. strong nitric acid and 5 grammes potassium chlorate, replace the light, and boil fifteen minutes longer, or until the yellowish fumes from the decomposition of the potassium chlorate are no longer given off. Cool the solution as rapidly as possible by standing the beaker in cold water, filter on the pump, using the cone ‡ or glass filtering-tube

* Jour. Chem. Soc., xxxiii. 269.

† Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, ix. 397.

‡ See page 27.

with asbestos filter,* and wash two or three times with strong nitric acid, which must be free from nitrous fumes.† Nitrous acid reduces manganese dioxide to manganous oxide, which then dissolves in nitric acid. Its presence may be recognized by the yellow color it imparts to nitric acid, and it may be removed by blowing air through the acid. It is always formed in nitric acid which has been exposed to sunlight, and for that reason this acid should be kept in a dark place. Suck the precipitate dry, and transfer it, with the asbestos filter, to the beaker in which the precipitation was made. Pour into the beaker from 10 to 40 c.c. strong sulphurous acid water, which will dissolve the precipitate almost instantly. By pouring it through the cone or filtering-tube, any adhering precipitate will be dissolved and carried into the beaker. As soon as the precipitate is dissolved, filter from the asbestos into a No. 1 beaker, washing with hot water, and add to the filtrate from 2 to 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid. Heat the filtrate until the excess of sulphurous acid is driven off, add bromine-water until the solution is strongly colored with it, and boil off the excess of bromine. Add ammonia until the solution smells quite strongly of it, boil for a few minutes, and filter into a No. 3 beaker. Wash several times with hot water, remove the beaker, dissolve the ferric hydrate on the filter in dilute hot hydrochloric acid (1 part of acid to 3 of water), allowing the solution to run back into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, and wash the filter with hot water. Boil this filtrate for a few minutes to drive off the chlorine which may be present from the solution of any little manganese dioxide precipitated with the ferric hydrate, reprecipitate by ammonia as before, filter, and repeat the solution, precipitation, and filtration, allowing all the filtrates from the ferric hydrate to run into the No. 3 beaker. Acidulate this solution, which will be about 300 or 400 c.c. in volume, with acetic acid, heat to boiling, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution for ten or fifteen minutes. Filter into a platinum dish from any cobalt sulphide, which is the only metal likely to be

* As described under Methods for Determination of Carbon.

† It is always well to transfer the filtrate and washings to a No. 4 beaker, add 2 grammes potassium chlorate, and boil again, to see whether any further precipitate of manganese dioxide is formed.

present with the manganese; boil off the hydrogen sulphide after adding a little hydrochloric acid, add microcosmic salt, and precipitate, filter, ignite, and weigh, as directed on pages 110 and 111, as manganese pyrophosphate.

Steels containing much Silicon.

In steel high in silicon (0.2 per cent. and over) the gelatinous silica formed is very apt to clog the filter when operating as described above, and it is better to dissolve the sample in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, being careful not to heat it too hot, redissolve carefully in 50 c.c. strong nitric acid, boil down until nearly syrupy to destroy all the hydrochloric acid, redissolve in 100 c.c. strong nitric acid, and precipitate as directed above.

Instead of dissolving in hydrochloric acid, Mr. Wood suggests adding a few drops of hydrofluoric acid to the nitric acid solution before evaporating. This seems to work extremely well, and saves much time in the case of high silicon steels. It may also be used to advantage in the case of pig-iron instead of the method given below.

Pig-Iron.

Dissolve 5 grammes in 50 c.c. dilute hydrochloric acid (1 part hydrochloric acid to 1 part water), filter on a washed filter into a No. 3 beaker, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in 50 c.c. strong nitric acid, and proceed as in the case of "steel high in silicon."

Spiegel and Ferro-manganese.

It is best to use only 1 gramme of spiegel or ferro-manganese of from 20 to 40 per cent. manganese and .5 gramme or $\frac{1}{10}$-factor weight of very high (from 60 to 80 per cent.) ferro-manganese. In the latter, indeed, it is better to use the acetate method with ammonia and acetic acid, and, omitting the precipitation by bromine, boil off the hydrogen sulphide from the filtrate from the insoluble sulphides, after adding hydrochloric acid, and then precipitate by microcosmic salt as directed above.

RAPID METHODS.

Volumetric Methods.

*Volhard's Method.**

This method is based on the principle announced by Morawski and Stingl,† that when potassium permanganate is added to a neutral manganous salt all the manganese is precipitated, in accordance with the reaction $4KMnO_4 + 6MnSO_4 + 4H_2O = 10MnO_2 + 4KHSO_4 + 2H_2SO_4$. When all the manganous salt is oxidized, the solution is colored by the permanganate, which thus indicates the end reaction. The permanganate used for titrating iron ores may be used for this determination, and, its value being determined, as directed, in terms of iron, the calculation for manganese is as follows. The reaction, when permanganate is added to a solution of ferrous sulphate, is $10FeSO_4 + 2KMnO_4 + 8H_2SO_4 = 5Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 2MnSO_4 + K_2SO_4 + 8H_2O$, or 2 molecules of potassium permanganate oxidize 10 molecules of ferrous sulphate. Now, as 2 molecules of permanganate oxidize 3 molecules of manganous sulphate, while 2 molecules of permanganate oxidize 10 molecules of ferrous sulphate, the oxidizing power of the permanganate is only three-tenths as great in the former case as it is in the latter, and its value in manganese is to its value in iron as 3 is to 10, or $\frac{55}{56} \times \frac{3}{10} = \frac{165}{560}$. Therefore the value of the permanganate in iron multiplied by $\frac{165}{560}$ or 0.2946 = its value in manganese.

Dissolve 1.5 grammes of borings in a platinum or porcelain dish in 25 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.). When solution is complete, add 12 c.c. dilute sulphuric acid (1 part concentrated sulphuric acid and 1 part water), and evaporate to dryness, as directed on page 20, heating until fumes of sulphuric acid are given off in order to destroy all the carbonaceous matter. Or dissolve in nitric acid as above, evaporate to dryness, and heat on the tripod until the carbonaceous matter is destroyed; dissolve in 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid, add 12 c.c. dilute sulphuric acid as above, and evaporate until fumes of sulphuric acid are given off.

* Liebig's Annalen, cxcviii. 318; Chem. News, xl. 207.

† Chem. News, xxxviii. 297.

Allow the dish to cool, add 100 c.c. water, and heat until the ferric sulphate is dissolved. Wash into a carefully graduated 300 c.c. flask, so that with the washings the solution may not exceed 200 c.c. in volume, and add a solution of sodium carbonate until the precipitate which is first formed dissolves only with difficulty. Then add slowly zinc oxide * suspended in water, shaking well after each addition until the iron is precipitated, which will be shown by the sudden coagulation of the solution. The precipitate will then settle, leaving a slightly milky supernatant liquid. Fill the flask exactly to the mark on the neck (300 c.c.), and mix thoroughly by pouring the entire contents of the flask into a large, clean, dry beaker, and back again into the flask, repeating this several times. Allow the precipitate to settle for a few minutes, and pour the solution through a large, *dry* filter. Fill a 200 c.c. pipette with this filtrate, which will, of course, represent exactly 1 gramme of the sample, run it into a flask of about 500 c.c. capacity, heat to boiling, and add from 2 to 5 drops of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.2). Now add permanganate solution slowly from a burette, shaking after each addition to mix the solution and facilitate the collection of the precipitated hydrated manganese dioxide. When the reaction is nearly finished, the solution will be slightly colored by the permanganate, but the color disappears after shaking the flask and allowing it to stand for a moment. Finally, however, a drop or two will give the solution a permanent pink color, which will not disappear for several minutes. The number of c.c. of the permanganate solution used multiplied by the factor found (the iron factor of the permanganate multiplied by 0.2946) is the amount of manganese in the sample. If, during the addition of the permanganate, the solution should become cool and the precipitate fail to collect and settle quickly, heat the solution, but not quite to the boiling-point. This method is applicable for all samples except those containing very minute amounts of manganese. In working on spiegel, take .75 gramme, then, using two-thirds of the filtrate, the amount will be calculated on .5 gramme.

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* See page 58.

Williams's Method.

This method, which consists in precipitating the manganese dioxide by Ford's method, filtering, washing, dissolving in sulphuric acid with a measured volume of some reducing agent, such as oxalic acid or ferrous sulphate, and titrating the excess by permanganate, was first used by Williams.* Regarding the precipitate by potassium chlorate in a nitric acid solution as manganese dioxide, the reaction in dissolving it might be expressed thus: $MnO_2 + 2FeSO_4 + 2H_2SO_4 = MnSO_4 + Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 2H_2O$, or $MnO_2 + H_2C_2O_4 + H_2SO_4 = MnSO_4 + 2CO_2 + 2H_2O$. Therefore 1 molecule of manganese dioxide oxidizes 2 molecules of ferrous sulphate or 1 molecule of oxalic acid, and, the excess of oxalic acid or ferrous sulphate unoxidized having been determined by a solution of permanganate, the difference between this excess and the amount originally added is the amount oxidized by the manganese dioxide.

We therefore require two standard solutions, one of permanganate and one of ferrous sulphate, ammonium-ferrous sulphate, or oxalic acid. The permanganate solution used for iron determinations answers perfectly. A solution of ferrous sulphate is perhaps the most satisfactory, and is prepared by dissolving 10 grammes of the crystallized salt, $FeSO_4,7H_2O$,† in 900 c.c. water and 100 c.c. strong sulphuric acid. It will keep perfectly in a glass-stoppered bottle in the dark for a long time. One c.c. of this solution will be equal to about .002 gramme iron, or nearly .001 gramme manganese, and if the permanganate is of the usual strength, say 1 c.c. = .007 gramme iron, 1 c.c. of the permanganate will equal about 3.5 c.c. of the ferrous sulphate. The permanganate solution having been carefully standardized, transfer 50 c.c. of the ferrous sulphate solution by means of a pipette to a dish, dilute to about 1 litre, and run in permanganate solution from a burette, stirring constantly until the first permanent pink tint appears. The reading of the burette will give the value of 50 c.c. ferrous sulphate in permanganate, and consequently by a simple calculation its value in iron and manganese. Suppose, for instance, 1 c.c. permanganate solution = .0068

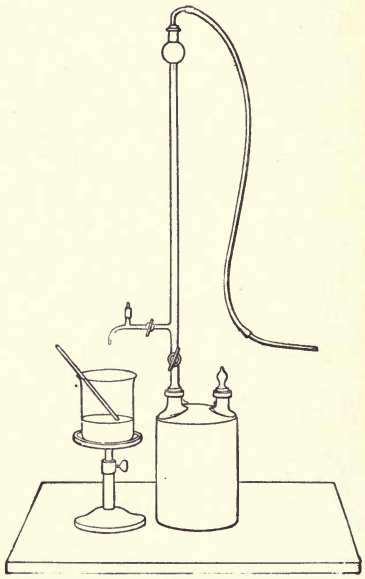
* Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, x. 100.

† See page 56.

gramme iron, or (according to the proportion given above, 112 : 55 : : iron : manganese) = .00334 gramme manganese. Then if 14.1 c.c. permanganate = 50 c.c. ferrous sulphate, 100 c.c. ferrous sulphate will be equivalent to 28.2 c.c. permanganate. In using oxalic acid, dissolve 2.25 grammes of the crystallized acid, $H_2C_2O_4,2H_2O$, in 1 litre of water, and determine its strength by pouring 50 c.c. into the dish, diluting with *hot* water, adding 5 c.c. sulphuric acid, and titrating with permanganate.

The details of the method are as follows. Weigh out 5 grammes of the sample of puddled iron, pig-iron, or steel, and proceed as directed on page 113 *et seq.;* but after filtering and washing the precipitated manganese dioxide with strong nitric acid, suck the precipitate as dry as possible, and then wash out the beaker in which the precipitation was made with cold water. Pour this water on the precipitate, and repeat the operation two or three times to get rid of all the nitric acid. Suck the precipitate as dry as possible, transfer it with the asbestos to the beaker in which the precipitation was made, measure into the beaker 100 c.c. of the standard ferrous sulphate solution (or 100 c.c. oxalic acid solution and 10 c.c. sulphuric acid), and stir until the manganese dioxide is all dissolved. When using oxalic acid it is necessary to heat gently to about 60° C. Wash the solution and abestos into the dish, dilute to about 1 litre (with oxalic acid use hot water), and titrate with permanganate. We will suppose, for example, that it requires 10.2 c.c. permanganate to give the permanent rose tint; then, as 100 c.c. ferrous sulphate = 28.2 c.c. permanganate, there would be the equivalent of 28.2 — 10.2 = 18 c.c. permanganate in ferrous sulphate oxidized by the manganese dioxide precipitate. One c.c. of permanganate being equivalent to .00334 gramme manganese, 18 c.c. = .06012 gramme manganese,

FIG. 54.



and, 5 grammes of the sample having been taken, .06012 ÷ 5 = 0.01202 × 100 = 1.202 per cent. manganese.

Fig. 54 shows a very convenient piece of apparatus designed by Mr. E. A. Uehling in 1884.*

It is especially useful when it is necessary to add rapidly a constant volume of a standard reagent; for instance, a measured excess of ferrous sulphate in volumetric determination of manganese after precipitation with potassium chlorate.

The burette-tube extends to the bottom of the Wolff bottle, which holds 2 litres. Enough air is supplied, without danger of dust or evaporation of solution, by means of a pin-hole drilled in the neck of the bottle and through the hollow glass stopper. The bottle may be blackened to preserve the solution from the action of light.

Spiegel and Ferro-manganese.

When working on spiegel or ferro-manganese, take .5 gramme of the sample and proceed in the same manner as directed for steel or iron; but it is better to use a standard solution of ferrous sulphate containing 30 grammes of $FeSO_4,7H_2O$ to the litre for very high ferro-manganese.

As there seems to be some uncertainty as to the exact composition of the manganese oxide,† the permanganate solution may be standardized as follows. Determine the absolute amount of manganese in a finely ground and well-mixed sample of spiegel or ferro-manganese by a gravimetric method, then treat .5 gramme of the same sample exactly as described above, and, having found the number of c.c. of permanganate that are equivalent to 100 c.c. of the ferrous sulphate solution, the amount of manganese in the sample divided by the number of c.c. of permanganate equivalent to the ferrous sulphate oxidized by the manganese oxide in the sample gives the value of the permanganate solution. Thus, if 100 c.c. ferrous sulphate solution require 28.2 c.c. permanganate to give the rose tint upon titration, the sample of spiegel contains 14.50 per cent. manganese,

* Communicated to the author by Mr. A. L. Colby, of the Bethlehem Iron Company.

† Stone, Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, xi. 323, xii. 295, 514; Mackintosh, Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, xii. 79, xiii. 39.

and the ferrous sulphate remaining after the solution of the manganese oxide in 100 c.c. requires 6.5 c.c. permanganate to give the rose tint upon titration (using .5 gramme of the sample, of which 1 gramme contains .1450 gramme manganese), the calculation would be as follows: 28.2 c.c. — 6.5 c.c. = 21.7 c.c. = .0725 gramme manganese, or 1 c.c. permanganate is equivalent to $\frac{.0725}{21.7}$ = .00334 gramme manganese.

Bismuthate Method.

This method was originally proposed by Schneider,* and modified first by Reddrop and Ramage,† and then by Brearley and Ibbotson.‡

The method was based on the fact that a manganous salt in the presence of an excess of nitric acid is oxidized to permanganic acid by bismuth tetroxide. The permanganic acid formed is very stable in nitric acid of 1.135 sp. gr., when the solution is cold, but in hot solutions the excess of the bismuth tetroxide is rapidly decomposed, and then the nitric acid reacts with the permanganic acid, and, as soon as a small amount of manganous salt is formed, the remainder of the permanganic acid is decomposed, manganous nitrate dissolves, and manganese dioxide precipitates.

In the cold, however, the excess of the bismuth salt may be filtered off, and to the clear filtrate an excess of ferrous sulphate added, and the amount necessary to deoxidize the permanganic acid determined by titrating with permanganate. The end reactions are very sharp and the method is extremely accurate, but the presence of even traces of hydrochloric acid utterly vitiates the results. As pointed out by Reddrop and Ramage, bismuth tetroxide which was used by Schneider is difficult to obtain free from chlorides, and they recommended sodium bismuthate, which they prepare as follows: Heat 20 parts of caustic soda nearly to redness in an iron or nickel crucible, and add, in small quantities at a time, 10 parts of basic bismuth nitrate, previously dried in a water-oven. Then add 2 parts of sodium peroxide and pour the brownish-yellow fused mass on an iron plate to cool; when cold, break it up in a mortar, extract with water, and

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* Ding. poly. J., 269, 224.

† Trans. Chem. Soc., 1895, p. 268.

‡ "The Analysis of Steel Works Materials."

collect on an asbestos filter. The residue, after being washed four or five times by decantation, is dried in the water-oven, then broken up and passed through a fine sieve.

The Method.

Steels.—Dissolve 1 gramme of drillings in 50 c.c. of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.135) in an Erlenmeyer flask of 200 c.c. capacity. Cool, and add about 0.5 gramme of bismuthate. The bismuthate may be measured in a small spoon, and experience will soon enable the operator to judge of the amount with sufficient accuracy. Heat for a few minutes, or until the pink color has disappeared, with or without the precipitation of manganese dioxide. Add sulphurous acid, solution of ferrous sulphate, or sodium thiosulphate, in sufficient amount to clear the solution, and heat until all nitrous oxide has been driven off. Cool to about 15° C., add an excess of bismuthate, and agitate for a few minutes. Add 50 c.c. of water containing 30 c.c. of nitric acid to the litre, and filter through an asbestos felt on a platinum cone into a 300 c.c. Erlenmeyer flask and wash with 50 to 100 c.c. of the same acid. The arrangement shown in Fig. 55 has proved very satisfactory. Run into the flask from the pipette, shown in Fig. 56, a measured volume of ferrous sulphate solution and titrate to a faint pink color with permanganate. The number of cubic centimetres of the permanganate solution obtained, subtracted from the number corresponding to the volume of ferrous sulphate used, will give the volume of permanganate equivalent to the manganese in the sample, which, multiplied by the value of the permanganate in manganese, gives the amount of manganese in the steel.

Pig Iron.—Dissolve one gramme in 25 c.c. of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.135) in a small beaker and, as soon as the action has ceased, filter on a 7 cm. filter into a 200 c.c. Erlenmeyer flask, wash with 30 c.c. of the same acid, and proceed as in the case of steels.

In the analysis of white irons it may be necessary to treat the solution several times with bismuthate to destroy the combined carbon. The solution, when cold, should be nearly colorless; if not, another treatment with bismuthate is necessary.

Iron Ores Containing less than 2 Per Cent. of Manganese.—Treat 1 gramme in a platinum dish or crucible with 4 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid, 10 c.c. of water, and 10 to 20 c.c. of hydrofluoric acid. Evaporate until the sulphuric acid fumes freely. Cool and dissolve in 25 c.c. of 1.135 nitric acid.

FIG. 55.

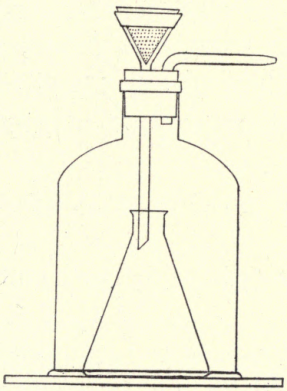
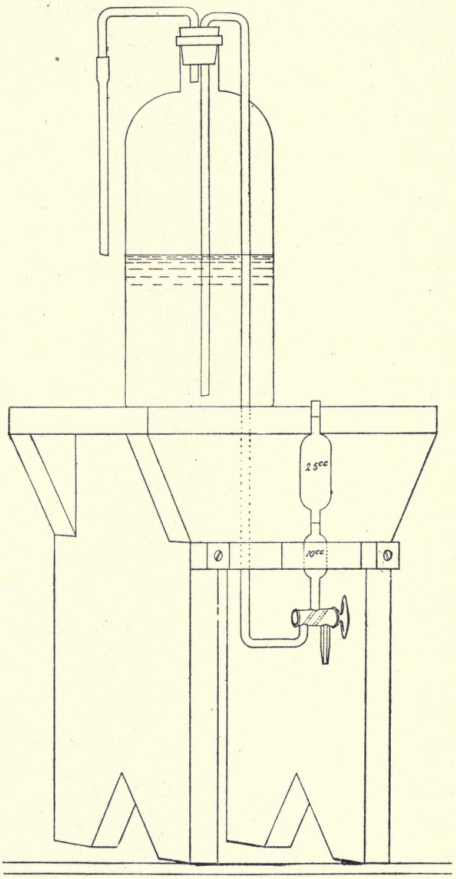


FIG. 56.



If no appreciable residue remains, transfer to a 200 c.c. Erlenmeyer flask, using 25 c.c. of 1.135 nitric acid to rinse the dish or crucible, and proceed as usual. If there is an appreciable residue, filter on a small filter into a beaker, wash with water, burn the filter and residue in a crucible, and fuse

with a small amount of potassium bisulphate. Dissolve in water, with the addition of a little nitric acid, add to the main filtrate, evaporate nearly to dryness, take up in 1.135 nitric acid, and transfer to the flask as before.

Manganese Ores and Iron Ores High in Manganese.—Treat 1 gramme as in case of iron ores, using a little sulphurous acid, if necessary. Transfer the solution to a 500 c.c. flask, dilute to the mark, mix thoroughly, and measure into the flask from a carefully calibrated pipette such a volume of the solution as will give from 1 to 2 per cent. of manganese and enough strong nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.4) to yield a mixture of 1.135 acid in a volume of 50 to 60 c.c. For example, in a 50 per cent. ore use 10 c.c. of the solution and add 30 c.c. of water and 10 c.c. nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.4). In this case, the manganese must be calculated on $\frac{1}{50}$ of a gramme or 20 mg. of ore. When working on such amounts it is always desirable to make duplicate analyses and take the mean, as a difference of 0.1 c.c. makes a large error in the result. When the ore contains a much smaller amount of manganese, say 5 or 10 per cent., it is better to make up the solution to say 100 c.c. instead of 500.

Ferro-manganese.—Treat 1 gramme exactly like steel. Dilute to 500 or 1000 c.c. and proceed as in manganese ores.

Ferro-silicon.—Treat 1 gramme with sulphuric and hydrofluoric acids and proceed as with iron ores.

Special Steels.—Steels containing chromium offer no special difficulties, except that it must be noted that while in hot solutions the chromium is oxidized to chromic acid, which is reduced by the addition of sulphurous acid, the oxidation proceeds so slowly in cold solutions that if there is no delay in the filtration and titration the results are not affected. Steels containing tungsten are sometimes troublesome on account of the necessity for getting rid of the tungstic acid. Those that decompose readily in nitric acid may be filtered and the filtrate treated like pig iron, but when it is necessary to use hydrochloric acid it is best to treat with *aqua regia*, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, add a few drops of nitric acid, dilute, boil, and filter. Get rid of every trace of hydrochloric acid by repeated evaporations with nitric acid, and proceed as with an ordinary steel.

Reagents.

Nitric Acid (sp. gr. 1.135).—A mixture of 3 parts of water and 1 part strong nitric acid answers perfectly for this purpose.

Nitric Acid (3 per cent.).—Thirty c.c. of strong nitric acid to the litre.

Permanganate Solution and Ferrous Sulphate Solution.—One gramme of potassium permanganate to the litre gives a solution of convenient strength, and 12.4 grammes of ferrous ammonium sulphate and 50 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid,* made up to 1 litre, give a solution which is almost exactly equal to the permanganate solution. As the strength of the ferrous sulphate solution changes quite rapidly, while the permanganate remains unaltered for months, it is unnecessary and troublesome to keep them of the same strength. By using a constant volume of the ferrous sulphate solution and testing it against the permanganate solution every day, the calculation of the results is very simple. It is necessary that the conditions should be the same in getting the strength of the ferrous sulphate solution as in titrating a solution for manganese, and after many experiments the following method of procedure was adopted: Measure into a 200 c.c. flask 50 c.c. of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.135), cool, and add a very small amount of bismuthate, dilute with 50 c.c. of 3 per cent. nitric acid, filter into a 300 c.c. flask, and wash with 50 c.c. of 3 per cent. nitric acid. If the felt is well coated with bismuthate it is unnecessary to add any to the nitric acid in the flask, as filtration through the mass of bismuthate on the felt will answer the purpose. Run in from the pipette (Fig. 56) 25 c.c. of ferrous sulphate solution and titrate with the permanganate to a faint pink. This gives the value in permanganate of the ferrous sulphate solution. With this method of procedure the discrepancies that had occurred entirely disappeared, and it is possible to make any number of determinations with a variation of less than 0.1 c.c.

The permanganate solution may be standardized in three ways:

First, by getting its value in iron, in the usual way, and calculating its

* Dr. C. B. Dudley proposes to use 25 c.c. of sulphuric and 25 c.c. of strong phosphoric acid as tending to give a more nearly colorless solution.

value in manganese. The proportion is 280 : 55 or as 1 : 0.19643, or taking the atomic weight of iron as 55.9 the proportion would be 279.5 : 55=0.1968.

Second, by titrating a steel containing a known amount of manganese and getting the value of the solution by dividing the percentage of manganese by the number of cubic centimetres of the permanganate used.

Third, by making a solution of pure manganese sulphate and determining the manganese in it by evaporating a weighed amount of the solution to dryness, heating to dull redness, and weighing as manganese sulphate, which, multiplied by 0.36424, gives the amount of manganese. Five grammes of "C.P." manganese sulphate dissolved in 500 c.c. of water and filtered will give a solution containing about 0.0035 gramme of manganese to the gramme of solution. Weigh 1 to 3 grammes of the solution in a crucible, transfer to a 200 c.c. flask, using 50 c.c. of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.135), cool, add 0.5 to 1 gramme bismuthate, and allow it to stand for three or four minutes, shaking at intervals. Add 50 c.c. of 3 per cent. nitric acid and filter through the asbestos filter and wash with 50 or 60 c.c. of the same acid. Run 25 c.c. of the ferrous sulphate solution into the flask from the pipette and titrate with the permanganate solution to a faint pink. Subtract the number of cubic centimetres of the permanganate solution obtained from the value of the 25 c.c. of ferrous sulphate solution in permanganate, and the result is the number of cubic centimetres of the permanganate corresponding to the manganese in the manganese sulphate solution used. Divide the weight of the manganese in the manganese sulphate used by the number of cubic centimetres of permanganate, and the result is the value of one c.c. of the permanganate solution in manganese.

Example.—One gramme manganese sulphate solution contains 0.003562 gramme manganese; 2.0372 grammes manganese sulphate solution equal 0.0072565 gramme manganese; 25 c.c. ferrous sulphate solution equal 24.5 c.c. permanganate solution; 2.0372 grammes manganese sulphate, after oxidation and addition of 25 c.c. ferrous sulphate solution, require 3.6 c.c. permanganate solution; 24.5 c.c.—3.6 c.c.=20.9 c.c.; 0.0072565 divided by 20.9=0.0003472, or 1 gramme permanganate equals 0.0003472 gramme manganese. If, then, 1 gramme of steel, after oxidation and addition of

25 c.c. ferrous sulphate solution, requires 6.2 c.c. permanganate solution to give the pink color, 24.5—6.2=18.3×0.0003472=0.006354 gramme, or the sample contains 0.635 per cent. manganese.

Notes and Precautions.

The delicacy of the reaction of manganese in nitric acid solution with sodium bismuthate is extraordinary,—0.000005 gramme of manganese gave an appreciable color in 50 c.c. of solution.

When the proper precautions are observed, this method for materials containing small amounts of manganese, say up to 2 per cent., is more accurate than any other method, volumetric or gravimetric, that I have ever used.

As will be seen in the description of the various methods of solution, the use of hydrochloric acid has been avoided, because the presence of even traces of this reagent is fatal to the accuracy of the method. Where it is impossible to avoid its use, and its presence is suspected in the final nitric acid solution, the addition of a drop or two of silver nitrate will overcome the difficulty, but the filter must be rejected after using it for filtering a solution so treated.

Any form of asbestos filtering tube may be used for filtering off the bismuthate, but the perforated cone with bell jar, shown in Fig. 55, is the most satisfactory, because it has the largest area of filtering surface. One filter may be used for fifty or more determinations, and the time occupied in filtering and washing one determination is only from one minute and a half to three minutes. The filtrate must be perfectly clear, for the least particle of bismuthate carried through will vitiate the result by reacting with the excess of ferrous sulphate. As soon as the filtration and washing are completed, the ferrous sulphate should be added and the excess titrated with the permanganate solution, as the permanganic acid gradually decomposes on standing, and the warmer the solution the more rapid is the decomposition. At a temperature of 5° C. the solution will remain unaltered for several hours, but at 40° C. fifteen minutes will show an appreciable change. The larger the amount of manganese the more rapid the change.

It is especially important not to allow the solution to stand after adding the ferrous sulphate, as the excess of this reagent reacts with the nitric acid in a few minutes and the formation of the smallest amount of nitrous oxide is fatal to the accuracy of the determination. For this reason it is important to boil off every trace of nitrous oxide when, in the earlier part of the operation, sulphurous acid or other deoxidizing agent is added.

When working with steels of unknown manganese content, it may often happen that 25 c.c. of ferrous sulphate solution are insufficient to entirely reduce the permanganic acid, in which case an additional amount of ferrous sulphate must be added, and the pipette shown in Fig. 56 has been arranged to meet this contingency. It will be noticed that the solution of permanganic acid upon the addition of an insufficient amount of ferrous sulphate does not necessarily retain its pink or purple color, but usually changes to a dirty brown. When this occurs, the lower part of the pipette may be emptied directly into the flask and the value of the two parts taken as the amount from which the number of cubic centimetres of permanganate, corresponding to the excess of ferrous sulphate, must be subtracted. When the sample is low in manganese, the 10 c.c. portion of the pipette alone may be used, so that the arrangement allows a great deal of variation in the manganese content of the samples worked on.

There is no advantage in using permanganate solutions differing in strength from the one given above, but the strength of the ferrous sulphate solution may be changed to meet special cases.

I am surprised that this method has not come into general use, for it combines, in a remarkable degree, extreme accuracy and great rapidity with simplicity and ease of manipulation.

Deshays's Method.

This method is based on the fact that manganese nitrate when boiled with excess of nitric acid and lead peroxide is oxidized to permanganic acid, which is reduced again by a standard solution of sodium arsenite.

Dissolve 0.5 gramme of steel or pig-iron in 30 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) and boil until all reactions cease. Add cautiously 1 to 3 grammes lead peroxide or red lead and dilute with hot water to about 60 c.c. Heat the solution to boiling and allow the lead salt to settle. Decant the solution

and boil the residue with 50 c.c. of nitric acid (1.13 sp gr.). Decant as before and repeat the operation until the supernatant liquid is colorless. Filter the decanted liquid through asbestos and titrate with a standard solution of sodium arsenite. To prepare the standard solution, dissolve 4.96 grammes of arsenious acid together with 25 grammes of sodium carbonate in water and dilute to 2500 c.c. Dissolve 0.5 gramme of a steel containing a known amount of manganese in 30 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) and treat it exactly as described above and divide the percentage of manganese by the number of c.c. of the standard solution required to decolorize the permanganic acid. This will give the value of each c c. of the standard solution in manganese. For steels containing over 0.5% manganese use 0.25 gramme, and for those containing over 1.0% use only 0.1 gramme. Hot solutions of nitric acid decompose permanganic acid unless the permanganic acid is very dilute, for which reason it is necessary to use decreasing amounts of the steel as the manganese contents increase.

The Color Method (for Steel).

This method was first suggested by Pichard,* and was used essentially in its present form by Peters.† It requires one or more standard steels in which the manganese has been most carefully determined by a gravimetric method. When a number of samples are to be tested at the same time, as is usually the case, a bath like the one shown in Fig. 86 is necessary, but for the manganese color method it should contain a solution of calcium chloride, which boils at 115° C.‡ It is, of course, very necessary in a method of this kind that the operations should always be conducted as nearly as possible under the same conditions, and that the standard should always be dissolved at the same time as the samples to be tested. Weigh .2 gramme of each sample and of the standard, and place them in 8-inch test-tubes properly numbered. Pour into each test-tube 15 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), cover each with a small glass bulb or very small funnel, and stand the test-tubes in the holes in the top of the bath, as shown in the sketch, Fig. 86. Heat in the bath at 100° C.

* Comptes-Rendus Hebd. des Séances de l'Acad. des Sciences, December 30, 1872.

† Chem. News, xxxiii. 35.

‡ This latter modification is due to Mr. S. A. Ford.

until solution is complete. Pour the contents of a test-tube into a 100 c.c. tube, wash out the test-tube with cold water, adding it to the solution in the 100 c.c. tube, and finally dilute to the 100 c.c. mark. Mix thoroughly by placing the thumb over the top of the tube and turning it upside down several times. Draw out 10 c.c. of this solution with a pipette graduated to deliver 10 c.c., and let it run into the test-tube in which the solution was made. Treat each sample in this way, including the standard. The tube is merely washed out with water, but the pipette can best be cleaned by drawing it full from the 100 c.c. tube of the fresh sample, throwing the contents away, and filling it a second time to deliver into the test-tube. Stand the test-tubes in the rack again, add to each 3 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), replace the bulbs or funnels, and stand the rack in the calcium chloride bath, the solution in which should now be boiling. When the *solutions in the test-tubes* begin to boil, add to each .5 gramme fine lead peroxide * and boil exactly five minutes. The lead peroxide can readily be measured by a small platinum spoon, made to hold about .5 gramme. It is necessary that the solutions in the test-tubes should boil, and it is easy to assure one's self of this fact by looking down into the test-tubes after the action caused by the addition of the lead peroxide has ceased. Remove the rack from the bath at the expiration of the five minutes, and stand it with the test-tubes in cold water, to cool the solutions and allow the insoluble lead salt to settle. The insoluble matter settles to the bottom of the tube in a heavy compact mass, leaving the supernatant fluid perfectly clean. When this occurs, which is usually within the space of half an hour, the solutions are ready to be decanted into the comparison-tubes.† In working on a number of steels we will suppose that we use two standards, one containing 1.2 per cent. of manganese, the other 0.6 per cent. As we weighed out .2 gramme, diluted the solution to 100 c.c., and took 10 c.c. in which to determine manganese, the amount taken corresponds to .02 gramme of the sample; and if we dilute the solutions of the standards after decanting into the comparison-tubes to 24 c.c., 1 c.c. will correspond to 0.05 per cent. in the high, and 0.025 per cent. in the low, standard. Decant each solution in turn into a comparison-tube, and dilute it until it has the exact tint and

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* See page 57.

† See Fig. 85.

depth of color of the standard to which it most nearly approximates when first decanted. The percentage of manganese is found by multiplying the number of c.c. to which the sample has been diluted by 0.05 or 0.025, according to the standard with which it has been compared. If, however, the solution of a sample when first decanted and before dilution should be lighter in color than the lower standard, the latter may, after the other samples have all been finished, be diluted to 30 c.c., when each c.c. will correspond to 0.02 per cent. manganese, or, if this color is not sufficiently light, to 40 c.c., when each c c. will correspond to 0.015 per cent. manganese. When even this color is not sufficiently light, a lower standard must be used for comparison, or a larger amount of the sample taken for solution. The comparison of the colors should be made in a camera or box, as shown in Fig. 89.

The direct rays of the sun should not be allowed to shine on the solutions, and a northern light for the comparisons is preferable to any other.

Walters's Modification.

Taking advantage of Dr. Marshall's suggestions in the *Chemical News*, vol. lxxxiii. p. 76, Mr. Walters has elaborated a method which avoids the necessity for filtration and for the use of a calcium chloride bath and allows the colors of the solutions to be compared as soon as they are cool. It is based on the fact that when a solution of a steel in nitric acid is heated with ammonium persulphate in the presence of a small amount of silver nitrate the manganese is oxidized to permanganic acid. Dissolve .2 gramme of the sample and the same amount of a standard steel in test-tubes, using 10 c.c. of nitric acid 1.2 sp. gr. for each. Heat in water-bath until solution is complete and all nitrous fumes are driven off. Add to each 15 c.c. of a solution of silver nitrate (1.33 grammes to 1 litre), equal to .02 gramme $AgNO_3$. Then add immediately about 1 gramme ammonium persulphate, and continue heating the solution for about half a minute after the oxidation begins. Place the tube in cold water, and when cold compare as usual.

* Harry E. Walters in Proceedings of Engineers' Society of Western Pennsylvania, October, 1901. This method is almost universally used in the Pittsburg district.

In the case of steels containing upward of 0.75 per cent. manganese use only .1 gramme. If the ammonium persulphate looks very dry, it should be moistened slightly a day or two before using; 10 c.c. of water to a pound of the salt is sufficient.

For pig-iron dissolve 1 gramme in a small beaker in 30 c.c. nitric acid 1.2 sp. gr. on the hot plate. Filter into a 100 c.c. calibrated flask and dilute to the mark. Mix well and pour 20 c.c. (10 c.c. if high in manganese) into a test-tube, warm, and add a little ammonium persulphate to destroy the combined carbon and give a clear solution. Add 5 c.c. silver nitrate solution (1 gramme of the salt to 250 c.c. water), add a little more ammonium persulphate, and proceed as before.

DETERMINATION OF CARBON.

Carbon differs from all other elements in iron and steel in that it is supposed to exist in several conditions, and analytical chemistry supplies the means of distinguishing between at least two of these conditions. Until within a few years it was considered to exist in two forms, as graphite and as combined carbon. To Karsten is due the recognition of the fact that graphite is a form of pure carbon, and not a compound of carbon and hydrogen. It is always present as a mechanical mixture, and is thus distinguished from the other form, which was supposed to be combined chemically with the iron. Of late years the opinion has been growing that "combined carbon" exists in at least two conditions in steel, but as yet chemical methods for separating and distinguishing between these conditions have failed, so far as quantitative work is concerned. The analytical methods here given are:

The Determination of Total Carbon,
The Determination of Graphitic Carbon, and
The Determination of Combined Carbon.

DETERMINATION OF TOTAL CARBON.

We may divide the methods for the determination of total carbon in iron and steel into the following classes:

A. The direct treatment of the borings or drillings without previous separation of the iron, including:

1. Direct combustion in a current of oxygen.

2. Direct combustion in a Gooch tubulated crucible.

3. Combustion with lead chromate and potassium chlorate (Regnault).

4. Combustion with cupric oxide in a current of oxygen (Kudernatsch).

5. Solution and oxidation of the borings in sulphuric, chromic, and phosphoric acids, the volume of the carbonic acid being measured (Wiborg, modified).

6. Solution and oxidation of the borings as in 5, the carbonic acid being weighed.

B. Removal of the iron by volatilization, and subsequent combustion of the carbon, including:

1. Volatilization in a current of chlorine (Berzelius, Wöhler).

2. Volatilization in a current of hydrochloric acid gas (Deville).

C. Solution of the iron, and combustion or weighing of the residue, including:

1. Solution in potassium-cupric chloride, filtration, and combustion of the residue in oxygen (Richter).

(*a*) Combustion of residue with sulphuric and chromic acids.

(*b*) Modification by Job and Davies.

(*c*) The Shimer crucible for combustion in air or oxygen.

2. Solution of the iron in cupric sulphate, filtration, and combustion of the residue in a boat in a current of oxygen (Langley).

3. Solution of the iron in cupric sulphate, and oxidation of the residue by chromic and sulphuric acids (Ullgren).

A. 1. Direct Combustion in a Current of Oxygen.

The thorough combustion of steel drillings and subsequent complete oxidation of the contained carbon is merely a question of temperature. At one time I was firmly convinced that at a temperature slightly above a dark red, platinum was permeable by carbon monoxide and dioxide and that it was, therefore, dangerous to heat a platinum tube above this point in the determination of carbon. Exhaustive experiments have convinced me of the fallacy of this assumption. With the proper temperature, any ordinary drillings may be completely burned, and it is unnecessary to have the steel in any finer state of subdivision than is requisite for obtaining a proper average of the sample. These results apply not only to ordinary steels and pig iron, but experiments have shown conclusively that with chrome-tungsten steels the direct method is the only one capable of giving accurate results, those obtained by solution in potassium-cupric chloride being invariably from 10% to 40% too low.

FIG. 57.

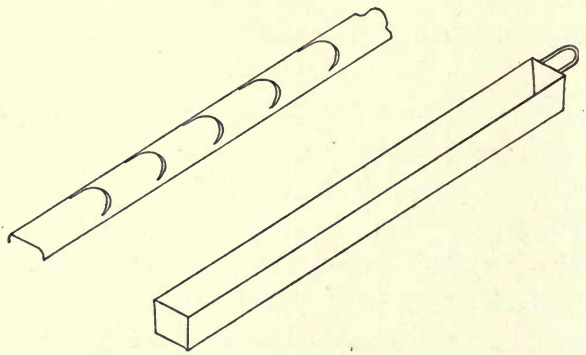


Fig. 57 shows the boat and cover used in this method. The boat is 6 inches (150 mm.) long, ⅜ inch (9 mm.) high, and ½ inch (12 mm.) wide on top and slightly narrower on the bottom. The cover fits loosely on the boat, and is provided with several openings formed by making semicircular cuts at intervals and slightly raising the edges. The openings serve to admit the oxygen freely, while the cover prevents the particles of oxide of iron thrown off from the steel during the combustion from reaching the inside of the tube.

Fill the boat with ignited alumina and make a V-shaped depression in the middle with a spatula, pressing the material against the sides of the boat. Adjust the cover and ignite the boat and its contents strongly, to expel any carbon dioxide present and to oxidize any carbonaceous matter that the alumina may contain.

Weigh a factor weight (2.7273 grammes) of the drillings and transfer it to the boat, being careful to distribute the material evenly in the depression without allowing any of the particles to be in contact with the platinum.

The general arrangement of the combustion apparatus is shown in Fig. 58. It consists of a platinum tube, B, 24 inches (600 mm.) long and 5/8 inch (16 mm.) in diameter from the joint P to the forward end of the furnace A, where it is contracted for a length of 6 inches (150 mm.) to a diameter of 1/4 inch (6 mm.). The rear end has a ground joint P, which is made perfectly air tight. The details of the joint are shown in Fig. 59.

The tube has a strengthening band of German silver, and the plug through which a platinum tube 4 inches (100 mm.) long and 1/4 inch (6 mm.) in diameter passes is made of phosphor-bronze. The forward end inside the furnace contains a plug of loosely wound platinum gauze 5 1/2 inches (138 mm.) long, completely filling the bore of the tube, and a similar roll 2 inches (50 mm.) long fitted with a loop is pushed in after the boat. The rear end of the tube at the joint may be supported by a wire from above or by a stand as shown in the

FIG. 59.

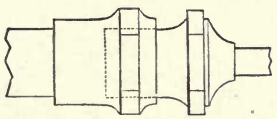
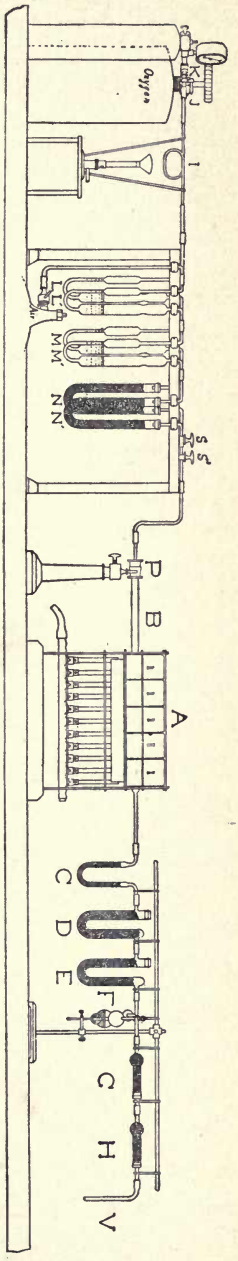
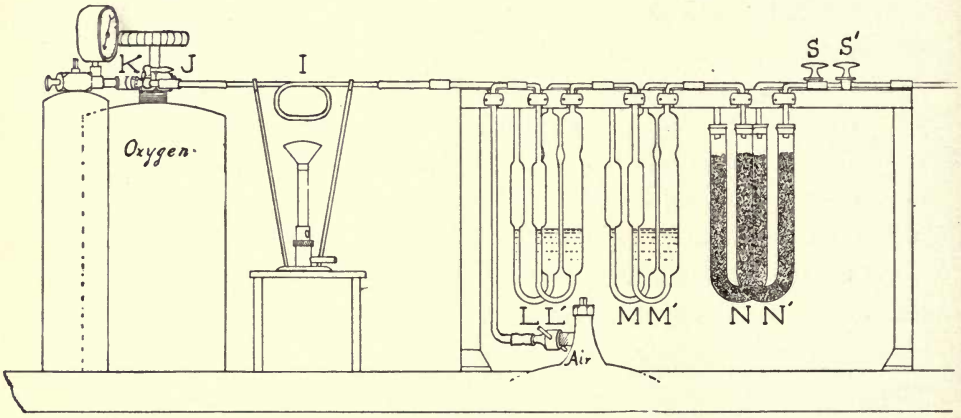


FIG. 58.



sketch, Fig. 58. The small U-tube C is filled with glass beads moistened with chromic acid solution, with a loose plug of glass wool in the forward end. This serves to oxidize any sulphurous anhydride and to absorb the sulphuric anhydride formed from the sulphur in the steel during the combustion. This tube is washed out daily and fresh glass wool inserted. The U-tube D contains pieces of anhydrous cupric sulphate, and E, dried granulated calcium chloride. The purifying apparatus for oxygen and air is shown in Fig. 60.

FIG. 60.

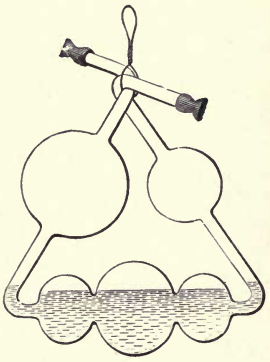


Oxygen from the large cylinder is passed into the smaller one until the pressure is from 150 to 200 pounds to the square inch, when the larger cylinder is closed and the gas is passed from the smaller cylinder through the apparatus, it having been found difficult to regulate the flow of gas properly by means of the valve in the large cylinder which is adapted to the heavy pressure of gas contained in these cylinders. While filling the smaller cylinder the stopcock K is closed, and when the valves in both cylinders are shut the pressure is relieved by opening this stopcock after disconnecting the rubber joint J. The preheating tube I is of platinum with glass fused on each end and contains fine platinum wire in the loop. It serves to burn any hydrocarbon that the oxygen may contain. The tubes L and L′ and M and M′ contain potassium hydrate (1.27 sp. gr.). The U-tubes N and N′ contain fused potassium hydroxide. The oxygen

passes through the tubes L, M, and N and the stopcock S, the air through L′, M′, and N′ and the stopcock S′. A Y-tube connects the two, and the gas or air passes through the glass tubes connected by rubber joints into the combustion-tube.

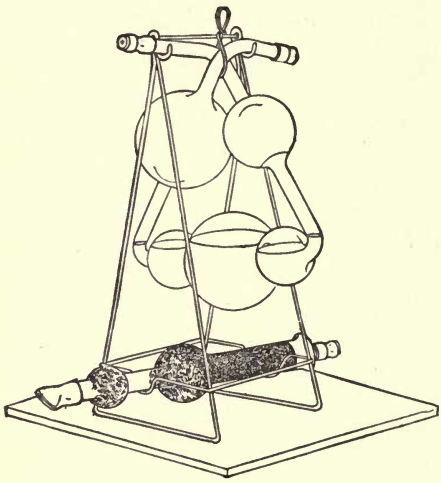
The absorption apparatus consists of the Liebig bulb F and the drying tube G, Fig. 58. F contains solution of potassium hydrate (1.27 sp. gr.). It is filled by attaching a short piece of rubber tubing to one end and applying suction to it, the other end being immersed in the potassium hydrate solution contained in a beaker or dish. The end must be wiped dry with a little filter-paper and the inside of the tube dried in the same way. When filled, the bulb should contain the solution as shown in Fig. 61. When attached to the apparatus, the gas passes first into the large bulb, and, the bulbs being inclined, the gas bubbles through the solution in the three bottom bulbs. It is fitted with a loop of platinum wire, as shown in Fig. 61. The drying tube contains dried calcium chloride. The small bulb of the drying tube, Fig. 62, contains a plug of cotton-wool, and another plug of the same material is inserted after the calcium chloride. H is a safety-guard tube, to prevent moisture from getting into the tube G during the combustion. The short rubber tube V is used to draw a little air through to test the tightness of the joints. All the stoppers in the various U tubes and drying tubes are of rubber. A copper rod is used to introduce the boats, etc., into the tube B. When not attached to the apparatus, the ends of the potash-bulb F and drying tube G are closed by little caps of rubber tubing (Fig. 61) made like the tips for "policemen." When on the balance, however, they should be closed with short pieces of rubber tubing containing bits of capillary glass tubing, as shown in Fig. 62. The forward end of the drying tube is closed in the same way. These openings are too small to allow the condition of the atmosphere to affect the weight of the bulbs by loss or gain of moisture, but they serve to equalize the pressure and make it unnecessary to reopen the balance case until the bulbs are weighed.

FIG. 61.



It is very necessary in filling the potash-bulb to avoid getting any of the solution on the outside of the bulb, and it is well to see that both the bulb-tube and the drying tube are perfectly clean. Wipe the potash-bulb and drying tube with a piece of linen, not silk (a clean linen handkerchief that does not leave lint on the glass is very good for this purpose), and place them on the balance.

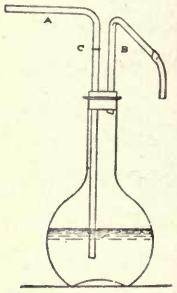
FIG. 62.



The little wire stand shown in Fig. 62 is very convenient for holding the absorption apparatus in the balance, as it brings all the weight on the pan, instead of putting the greater part on the beam alone, as is the case when the potash-bulbs are suspended from the hook on the end of the beam. Allow it to remain about thirty minutes to get the exact temperature of the balance, and weigh.

In the mean time turn on the oxygen after closing the stopcock S′, Fig. 58, heat the platinum tube to bright redness in the furnace, and, by means of a small blast-lamp or Bunsen burner, heat the forward end to drive out any sulphuric acid that may remain in the tube. Turn out the burners of the furnace, turn off the oxygen, close the stopcock S, open S′ and start a slow current of air through the apparatus. When the tube is cool, attach the U-tubes C, D, and E, shut off the air, close the stopcock S′, and test the tightness of the connections by attaching a flask or bottle containing water and fitted with a cork carrying two glass tubes as shown in Fig. 63 to the forward end of E.

FIG. 63.



By drawing air through the tube B the water will rise in A, and if it keeps its level for a few minutes, we may be certain that all the connections are air tight. If it does not, the defective connection must

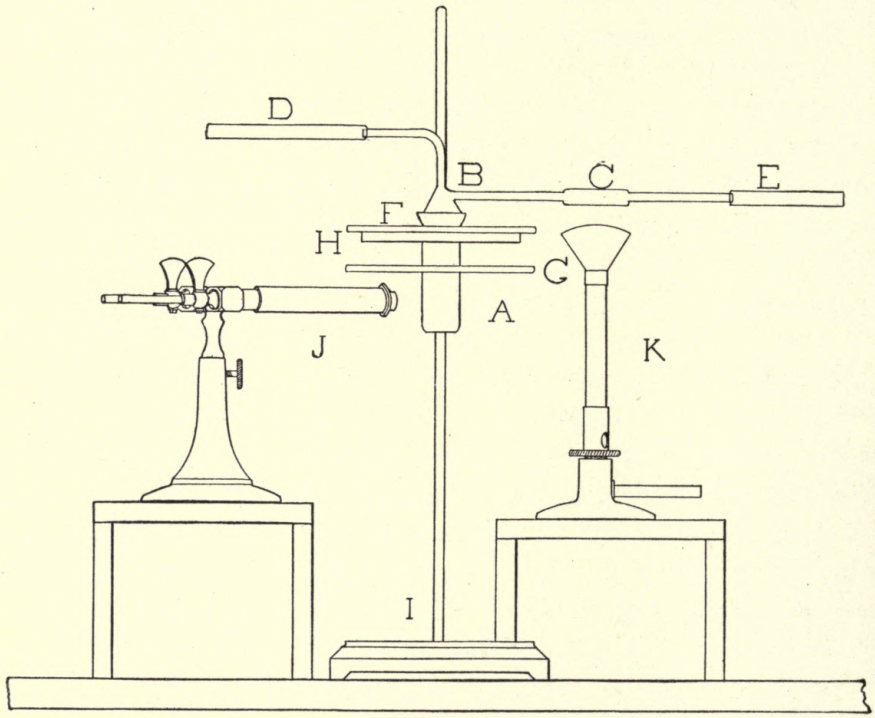
be discovered and repaired. Open the rear end of the tube, insert the boat containing the drillings, and push it forward by means of a rod until it is in contact with the gauze plug. Push the short gauze plug in after it, close the tube, and attach the weighed absorption apparatus as shown in the sketch, Fig. 58. Start a slow current of oxygen through the apparatus and light the burner under the preheater and the first three or four burners under the forward end of the tube, and when the tube is red hot light the other burners in succession. As soon as the forward end of the boat gets hot the drillings begin to burn and the absorption of oxygen is very rapid. The valve controlling the supply of oxygen must be regulated so as to keep a slow current of gas passing through the absorption apparatus. It is not desirable to light the burners in very rapid succession, as under these circumstances the drillings burn very rapidly, and the heat generated by the combustion is so great that the oxide of iron melts, and, running through the alumina, fuses to the bottom of the boat, from which it is sometimes difficult to dislodge it. It may even in extreme cases run through the boat and pass to the tube itself. When all the burners are lighted and the absorption of oxygen has practically ceased, turn the burners up to the full extent and maintain the tube at the highest possible temperature for five minutes. Turn off the oxygen, turn on the air, extinguish the burners, and allow the air to pass for twenty or twenty-five minutes. Shut off the air, detach the absorption apparatus, and weigh it with the same precautions as before. The increase in weight is the carbonic acid from the carbon in the steel and contains 27.27% of carbon. When the factor weight is used for the combustion, each tenth of a milligramme increase of weight in the absorption apparatus is 0.001% carbon in the steel.

2. Direct Combustion in a Gooch Tubulated Crucible.

Several modifications of the Shimer crucible have been proposed for the determination of carbon in steel and iron and most of them are available for direct combustion. A water-cooled rubber joint has its disadvantages, which are not found in the Gooch tubulated crucible, the details of which are shown in Fig. 100. The crucible used for the direct combustion of steel and iron differs in some of its details from the one shown in Fig. 100. The

flange is deeper, the cap, while the conical part goes to the bottom of the flange, does not fit tightly, and the horizontal tube through which the products of combustion pass is much longer and widens out at the point C, Fig. 64, for a distance of an inch (25 mm.). This portion of the tube is filled with fine platinum wire and heated by a burner to facilitate the oxidation of any sulphur dioxide or carbon monoxide that may be present.

FIG. 64.



As shown in the cut, Fig. 64, the apparatus consists of the crucible A, which is supported by a disk of asbestos board, F, cut to fit closely under the flange, resting on the ring H, attached to the upright of the stand I. A second disk of asbestos board, G, occupies the position shown in the cut and is held in place by a piece of platinum wire encircling the crucible under the disk, which is heavy enough to keep its position and support the weight of the asbestos. This disk serves to prevent the heat from extending upward

on the crucible and melting the sodium tungstate in the flanged joint. The pieces of glass tubing D and E are attached to the platinum by melting a little "sealing in" glass on the ends of the platinum tube and then fusing the ordinary soft glass tubing to it.

The tube D is connected with the oxygen and air, and E to the tube C in the sketch, Fig. 58. The apparatus, therefore, takes the place of the platinum tube. Two ordinary crucibles, about 1½ inches (37 mm.) high and narrow enough to slip easily into the flanged crucible, should be provided.

Put enough alumina in the flanged crucible A to fill it to the depth of about ½ inch (12 mm.) and fill one of the small crucibles full of the same material. With a pair of forceps put the small crucible in the large one and press it down well into the alumina. By means of the blast-lamp J heat the crucible to bright redness to destroy any carbonaceous matter and to drive off any carbonic acid that may be in the alumina. Cool, remove the small crucible, and with a glass rod press the alumina down to form a conical hole extending half-way to the bottom of the crucible. Weigh one gramme of the steel or iron drillings, transfer them carefully to the crucible, so that none of them may be in contact with the sides of the crucible, which should be perfectly covered by the alumina. Place the crucible in the large crucible A as before, put the cap B in place in the flanged joint, and connect the tube D with the tube from the oxygen and air supplies, Fig. 58. Fill the joint around the cap with small pieces of sodium tungstate, prepared by melting ordinary sodium tungstate in a platinum dish with one-tenth its weight of tungstic acid, and, when perfectly fused, running it over the bottom and sides of the dish and allowing it to cool in a thin layer. Fuse the sodium tungstate in the joint by a flame from the blast-lamp J, at the same time passing a rapid current of oxygen through the apparatus to prevent the carbonic acid of the flame from entering the tubulated crucible. Allow it to cool while the current still passes, then shut off the current, attach the tubes C, D, and E, Fig. 58, and test the tightness of the joints by means of the bottle, Fig. 63, as directed in the previous method. Attach the previously weighed absorption apparatus, light the burner K, Fig. 64, and start the oxygen through the apparatus. Heat the crucible A, Fig. 64, with

the blast-lamp J in the position shown in the cut. The flame of the lamp should be large enough to surround the crucible and the full heat may be applied at once, the current of oxygen being so regulated as to keep up a constant current of three or four bubbles a second through the Liebig bulb F, Fig. 58. When the absorption of oxygen has ceased, turn off the oxygen, turn on the air, extinguish the blast-lamp J and the lamp K, and after the air has passed for fifteen or twenty minutes shut it off and detach and weigh the absorption apparatus. Detach the tube E, melt the sodium tungstate in the joint with the blast-lamp, and, holding the horizontal tube of the cap with a piece of asbestos board, withdraw the cap from the joint. Allow the edge to rest on the ring F, remove the small crucible, and replace it with another crucible containing a weighed portion of drillings. Replace the cap in the joint, start a rapid current of oxygen, fuse the sodium tungstate, while fused press the cap down into the joint, allow it to cool, and proceed with the combustion.

By weighing the absorption apparatus while full of oxygen, before and after combustion, the determinations may be very rapidly made, and, while they are not perfectly accurate, they are much more accurate than the color method.

Notes and Precautions.

Pig iron should be mixed with an equal weight of low-carbon steel or electrolytic iron, as noted under Ferro-chrome analysis.

The alumina used in the boats and crucibles is very light; it should not be pressed down in the boat, for the more compact it is the greater the tendency of the oxide of iron to fuse and penetrate to the bottom.

The burners should not be lighted in succession more rapidly than needed to keep up the absorption of the oxygen, for the heat of combustion is so great that the oxides fuse very readily. A little experience will show the rate at which the oxygen should be admitted and the burners lighted. If the operation has been properly conducted the fused or sintered oxides may be readily removed.

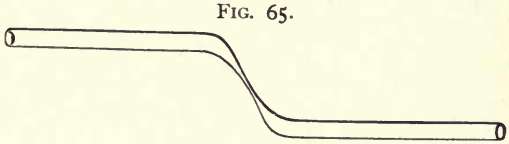
The alumina remaining in the boat or crucible should be broken up and the boat filled with ignited alumina and prepared for the next combustion.

The drillings should, if possible, be taken with a diamond-pointed drill used with very slow speed, which furnishes drillings of the best size and shape. They should usually be ground in a Wedgwood mortar, which mixes them thoroughly and breaks up the larger pieces. Long curls may be flattened by pounding in the hardened mortar, Fig. 7, and, if necessary, cut into small pieces with the shears.

3. Combustion with Lead Chromate and Potassium Chlorate.

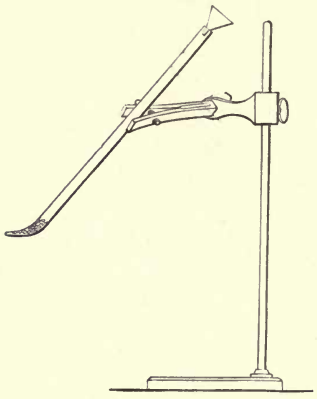
This method requires the sample to be very finely powdered. Take a piece of combustion-tubing about 32 inches (800 mm.) long, ½ inch (12 mm.) internal diameter, $\frac{1}{16}$ inch (1.5 mm.) thick in the walls; heat it in the middle by means of a blast-lamp until it softens, draw the ends apart slightly, and then, keeping the ends parallel, draw it out as shown in Fig. 65. Allow it to cool, scratch it in the middle with a file, and break it. This gives two tubes, each about 16 inches (400 mm.) long. Fuse the large ends slightly so as to round the sharp edges, but avoid contracting the tube. Wash the tubes thoroughly, using a rod with a piece of dark-colored silk or linen on the end; then if any lint remains on the inside of the tube it can easily be seen. Dry the tubes by heating them carefully and drawing air through them, then fuse the small ends and cork the large ends to keep out the dust. Weigh carefully from 1 to 3 grammes (1 gramme of pig-iron, spiegel, or ferro-manganese, 3 grammes of steel) of the sample, and grind it thoroughly in a small mortar with 15 times its weight of fused and powdered lead chromate and 1½ times its weight of fused and powdered potassium chlorate or potassium bichromate. Potassium bichromate is to be preferred, as a little chlorine is sometimes given off by potassium chlorate when used in this manner. Place the combustion-tube in a stand, as shown in Fig. 66, and push down into the end, with a clean glass rod, a little ignited asbestos. The asbestos

FIG. 65.



should not be tightly packed, as it will prevent the air from passing in freely at the end of the operation. Place a small, dry, perfectly clean funnel in the end of the tube, and pour through it enough of the pure powdered lead chromate to fill the tube for about one inch of its length. Hold the mortar under the funnel so that anything that falls from it may go into the mortar, and charge the mixture into the tube by means of a small platinum spatula. Clean out the mortar by grinding in it two or three successive small portions of lead chromate, charging each into the tube through the funnel. Remove the funnel, cork the tube, and, holding it in a horizontal position with the tail up, tap it gently to get a clear space for the passage of the gas from one end of the tube to the other. Place the tube in the combustion-furnace, remove the cork, and insert in its place a smooth velvet cork, through the centre of which passes one end of a Marchand U-tube. The half of this tube nearest the combustion-tube contains anhydrous cupric sulphate,* and the other half granulated dried calcium chloride, the two reagents being separated by a small plug of fibrous asbestos loosely packed. Weigh, and attach the absorption apparatus and safety-tube. Apply suction at the end of the rubber tube on the forward end of the safety-tube, and draw a few bubbles of air through the potash-bulb. Allow the liquid to recede gradually; if it maintains its level in the bulb for a few minutes, the joints of the apparatus may be considered tight, but if it gradually falls, it is proof that there is a leak, and the joints must all be tightened. If, after pushing the cork as far as possible into the end of the combustion-tube and binding all the rubber connections, another trial still shows a leak, a fresh cork must be substituted. When the joints are all tight, light the burner at the

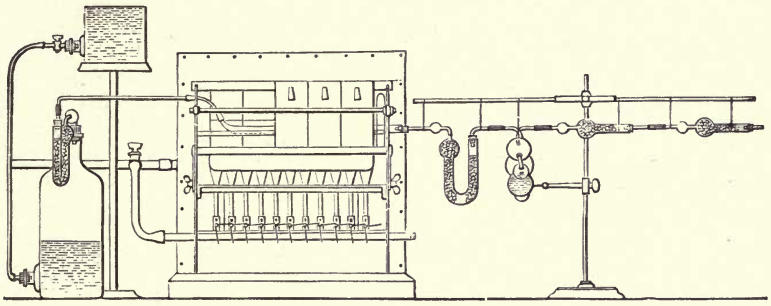
FIG. 66.



* See page 53.

forward end of the tube, and each burner successively as the flow of gas slackens, bringing the tube over each burner to a red heat before lighting the next one. Maintain the whole length of the tube up to the asbestos at a good red heat until the flow of gas entirely ceases. Then pass a piece of rubber tubing attached to a purifying apparatus well over the tail of the tube, which should be cool enough to be handled, break the point of the tail inside the tubing, lower the lights a little, and, by means of the aspirator-bottles, force about 1 litre of air through the apparatus. It will now appear as in Fig. 67. Turn out the lights, and detach and weigh the absorption

FIG. 67.



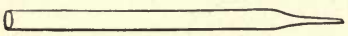
apparatus, with the precautions mentioned on page 138. The increase of weight will be the carbonic acid due to the carbon in the sample. This contains 27.27 per cent. carbon.

4. Combustion with Cupric Oxide in a Current of Oxygen.

Prepare the combustion-tube as directed in the last method, and pour on the asbestos in the end of the tube enough cupric oxide to fill the tube to the height of about an inch (25 mm.). Mix the weighed sample—from 1 to 3 grammes in a fine state of division—with at least twenty times its weight of finely powdered pure cupric oxide, charge it into the tube as directed on page 144, rinse out the mortar with a little more of the same material, and finally fill the tube to within an inch (25 mm.) of the end with granulated cupric oxide. Make the combustion exactly as directed

in the last method (page 145). If the combustion is to be made in a current of oxygen, which is much the best plan, instead of drawing the combustion-tube out to a point and sealing it, it may be drawn out straight, as shown in Fig. 68. In this case, attach to the drawn-out end when the tube is in the furnace a purifying apparatus for oxygen and air, as shown in Fig. 71, and conduct the operation as directed on page 145.

FIG. 68.



5. Solution and Oxidation of the Borings in Sulphuric, Chromic, and Phosphoric Acids, the Volume of the Carbonic Acid being measured.

The method given below for the determination of carbon in steel is generally used in the steel works laboratories in the eastern part of France, and I am indebted for the details to Monsieur H. A. Brustlein of Jacob Holtzer et Cie, of Unieux, at whose works and at those of the Aciéries de la Marine at Saint-Chamond the various improvements in the method, first suggested by Wiborg,* have been worked out.

The solutions employed are:

1. A saturated solution of chemically pure cupric sulphate.

2. An aqueous solution of chromic acid (1 gramme chromic acid to 1 c.c. water).

3. A mixture of sulphuric, phosphoric, and chromic acids made up as follows:

Solution of chromic acid (solution No. 2)	35 c.c.
Water	190 "
Concentrated sulphuric acid	750 "
Phosphoric acid (1.4 sp. gr.)	340 "

In preparing solution No. 2, add a few c.c. of sulphuric acid and heat to boiling to destroy any organic matter that may be present.

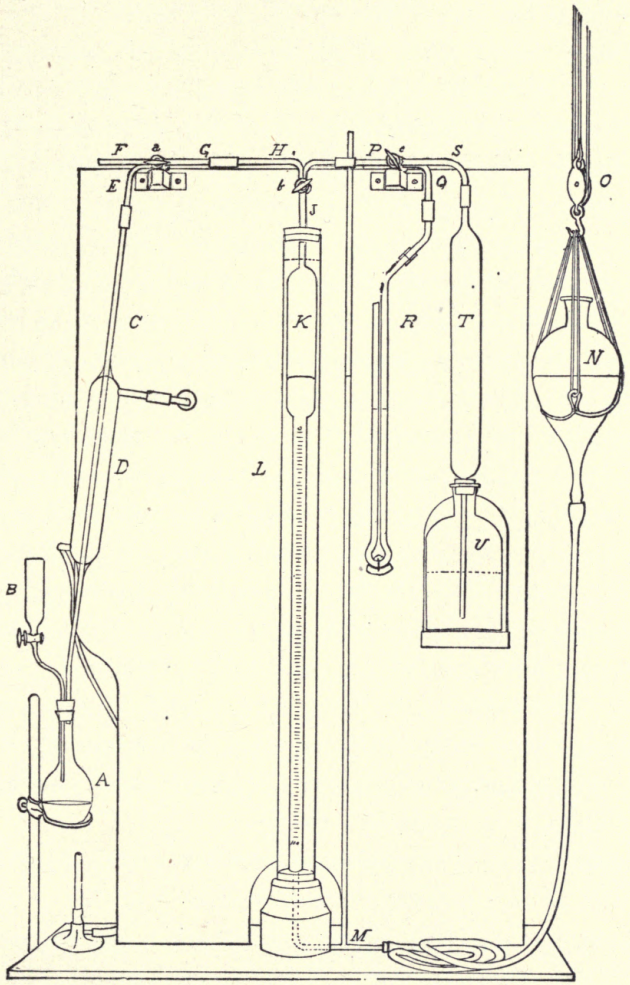
In preparing solution No. 3, heat it to boiling also for the same purpose.

---

* Stahl und Eisen, 1887, p. 465.

The apparatus, as shown in the sketch (Fig. 69), consists of a round-bottom flask, A, of 250 c.c. capacity, with a long neck. The flask is closed with a rubber stopper with two holes, in one of which is fitted the glass

FIG. 69.



stopper funnel B and in the other the tube C enclosed in the condenser D, through which a stream of water runs during the operation. The tube C is connected with one tube, E, of a three-way stopcock, *a*, from which the

second tube, F, opens into the air, and the third, G, connects with the tube H of the three-way stopcock *b*. The second tube, J, from this stopcock is fused to the burette K, which is enclosed in the tube L containing water. The lower end of the burette connects with a tube, M, of small interior diameter, which serves as a level tube and is in the form of a T; it is connected with the mercury reservoir N, which is raised and lowered by the arrangement O. The third tube of the stopcock *b* connects with the tube P of the stopcock *c*, the second tube, Q, of the stopcock *c* connects with the manometer R, and the third tube, S, with the pipette T, which runs into the bottle U. The tubes of the stopcocks *b* and *c*, the manometer tube R, the level tube M, and the tubes of the pipette T are capillaries. The manometer tube R contains water, and serves to accurately adjust the levels when taking the reading of the burette K. When the manometer is shut off from the burette the approximate level is ascertained by means of the level tube M. The tube F of the stopcock *a* is used only in exceptional cases: first, when the evolution of gas is insufficient to carry the mercury far enough down the burette K, in which case air is drawn through it into the burette; and secondly, when the evolution of gas is so great that it is necessary to make two absorptions in the pipette T, in which case the residue from the first absorption is discharged through the tube F. The pipette T, which is of about 400 c.c. capacity, contains a solution of potassium hydroxide of 1.27 sp. gr. The bottle U is of about one litre capacity. The water in the containing tube L serves to keep the gas in the burette at the ordinary temperature of the laboratory. It should be protected from the heat of the burner and flask by a screen.

The operation is conducted as follows:

Connect the pipette T, by means of the stopcocks *b* and *c*, with the burette K, and, by lowering the mercury reservoir, fill the pipette with the potassium hydroxide solution, close the stopcock *c*, fill the burette K with mercury, and close the stopcock *b*. Weigh 1 gramme of drillings into the flask A, attach it to the apparatus, start the water through the condenser D, and connect the flask with the burette K by means of the stopcock *a*. Pour 15 c.c. of the cupric sulphate solution No. 1 into the funnel tube B, and let it flow into the flask. Allow it to act long enough to form a super-

ficial deposit of copper on the drillings (one or two minutes is sufficient), then add, through the funnel tube, 15 c.c. of solution No. 2 and 135 c.c. of solution No. 3. Heat the solution in the flask and raise it slowly to the boiling-point. By means of the reservoir, keep the mercury in the burette and in the tube M nearly level. The water condensed in the tube C drops back into the flask and keeps the liquid of the same density, while the properly cooled gases pass into the burette.

Allow the flask A to cool for about five minutes, and then run into it, through the funnel tube B, enough water to fill the flask and the tube to the stopcock *a*, thus forcing all the gas into the burette. Close the stopcock *a* and connect the burette, by means of the stopcocks *b* and *c*, with the manometer R, adjust the levels accurately, and take the reading of the burette. Then by means of the stopcock *c* connect the burette with the pipette T, and, by raising and lowering the reservoir N, pass the gas several times back and forth to cause the potassium hydroxide to absorb all the carbon dioxide. Finally connect the burette with the manometer tube R, adjust the levels, and take the reading of the burette.

The burette K should contain a few drops of water to insure the saturation of the gases with aqueous vapor. The difference between the two readings is the volume of the carbon dioxide. Observe the readings of the thermometer and barometer, and reduce the volume of the carbon dioxide to that which it would occupy in the dry state at 0° C. and 760 mm. pressure. (Table V.)

Multiply the volume of the gas so obtained by 0.0019663, and the result is the weight of the carbon dioxide in grammes.

6. Solution and Oxidation of the Borings as in 5, the Carbonic Acid being weighed.

Fig. 70 shows the details of the apparatus for carrying out this method. M is the U-tube for purifying the air. It contains fused caustic potash. A is the flask for oxidizing and dissolving the sample. The piece of glass tubing N bent at a right angle is drawn out slightly at the lower end, over which a piece of soft gum tubing is fitted, forming a stopper, which fits tightly in the top of the bulb-tube when air is forced through the

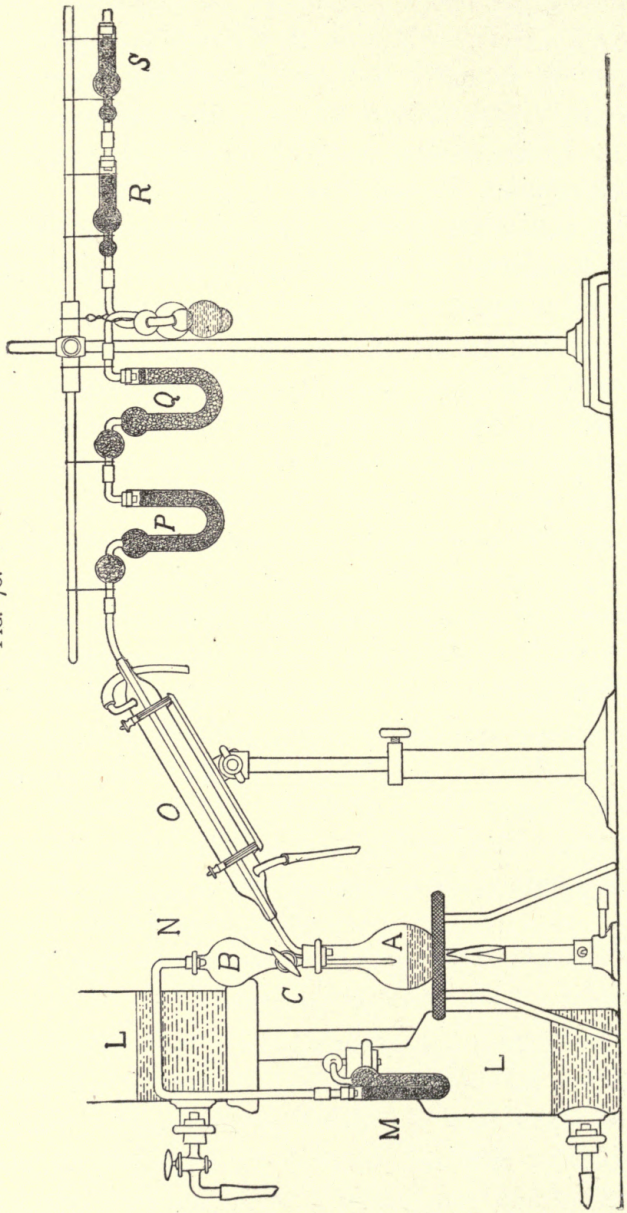


FIG. 70.

apparatus. B is a bulb-tube for introducing the reagents. The lower end is drawn out so that the orifice is quite small. O is a condenser, P contains anhydrous cupric sulphate, Q granular calcium chloride, and the small bulb of P and Q contains cotton-wool. The Liebig bulb and the tube R form the absorption apparatus, and S the safety-tube. Conduct the operation as described on page 148, pass two litres of air through and weigh the absorption apparatus as described on page 138.

B. 1. Volatilization of the Iron in a Current of Chlorine, and Subsequent Combustion of the Carbon.

Spread out evenly 1 gramme of pig-iron or 3 grammes of steel on the bottom of a porcelain boat about 3 inches (75 mm.) long, and treat it exactly as described on page 73 *et seq.* The boat when withdrawn from the tube contains the carbon, slag, and oxides, and nearly all of the non-volatile chlorides, such as manganous chloride. When the sample contains much manganese, it is necessary to treat the residue in the boat with cold water, filter it on a small plug of ignited asbestos, return it to the boat, and dry it before burning it off. As this adds very considerably to the time required for the determination, it is best to adopt some other method for the determination of carbon in such materials as spiegel and ferro-manganese. Introduce the boat into the tube B of the apparatus Fig. 71. This apparatus consists of a ten-burner combustion-furnace A, through which runs the porcelain tube B. This tube is about 25 inches (625 mm.) long and ¾ inch (18 mm.) internal diameter. It projects 6 inches (150 mm.) outside the furnace at each end, and the sheet-iron screens L prevent the heat from reaching the stoppers P and S. The tube is filled for a length of 6 inches (150 mm.), or from about the middle of the tube to the forward end of the furnace, with copper dioxide, which is best made by rolling up tightly a piece of coarse copper gauze 6 inches (150 mm.) long until it makes a roll *nearly* filling the bore of the tube, and heating it for an hour in a current of oxygen. A piece of thin sheet-silver 4 inches long, and forming a roll completely filling the bore of the tube, is placed just in front of the copper dioxide: it serves to absorb any chlorine given off during

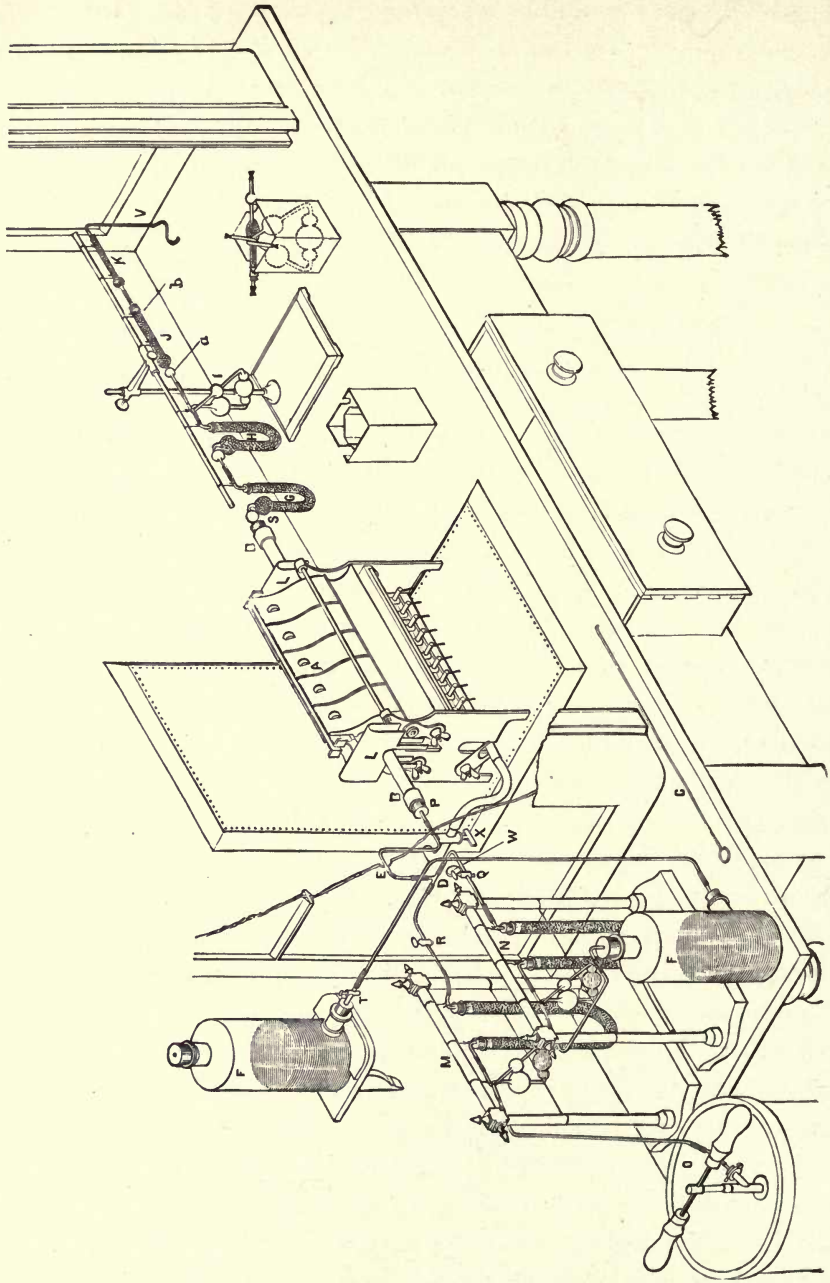


FIG. 71.

the combustion.* A roll of copper gauze two inches long, with a loop in one end, thoroughly oxidized, is pushed in after the boat containing the carbon. The cylinder O contains oxygen under pressure. The bottles F, F serve to force air through the apparatus to replace the oxygen at the end of the operation. The stopcock T serves to regulate the flow of water, and consequently of air. When all the water has run from the upper into the lower bottle, it is siphoned out of the latter and returned to the former.

The purifying apparatus M and N, for oxygen and air respectively, consist of Liebig potash-bulbs filled with solution of potassium hydrate (1.27 sp. gr.), and U-tubes, the sides next the potash-bulbs filled with dry pumice and the other sides with calcium chloride. The glass stopcocks Q and R shut off the purifying apparatus on their respective sides when the oxygen or air is passing through the other set. The T-tube D connects the two sets of apparatus, the third limb passing through the glass in the side of the hood, and connecting by means of the bent glass tubes with the rubber stopper P, which fits in the porcelain tube B. All the connections are made with glass tubes joined together by rubber tubing, the ends of the glass tubing being brought close together inside the rubber. This is to avoid carrying the oxygen or air through rubber tubing, which gives off volatile hydrocarbons. The Marchand U-tube G contains anhydrous cupric sulphate to absorb any hydrochloric acid which may be evolved during the combustion. It is joined to the tube B by a rubber stopper. The U-tube H contains granulated dried calcium chloride.† The absorption apparatus is that described on page 137.

The form of absorption apparatus here figured is only one of many that may be used for this purpose. It has the advantage of simplicity and it can be easily wiped clean from any moisture that it may get by handling, from dust or from gases of the laboratory. The arrangement shown in I, Fig. 84, page 172, is also very convenient. It stands on the pan of the balance, and, when once put together and wiped clean,

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* This roll of silver must occasionally be removed and ignited in a current of hydrogen to remove the chlorine.

† See page 52.

it may be managed so that the hands come in contact with it as little as possible. On the other hand, the potash-bulb is rather difficult to fill, and the drying tube is necessarily smaller and contains less calcium chloride, so that a very rapid current of air or oxygen may carry moisture from the potash-bulb through it on account of the smaller surface of the drying material. Instead of a potash-bulb a U-tube containing soda-lime is sometimes used, but as soda-lime absorbs carbonic acid only on the surface of the particles, it is not so certain in its action and is not to be recommended. No matter what form of apparatus is selected, care must be used to fill the potash-bulb frequently with fresh potassium hydrate and the drying tube with dry calcium chloride.

300 grammes of potassium hydroxide to the litre of water give a solution of 1.27 sp. gr.

Place the absorption apparatus on the balance and allow it to remain about thirty minutes to get the exact temperature, and weigh. Attach the absorption apparatus as shown in the sketch, Fig. 71, insert the boat in the tube by means of the rod C, pushing it up against the cupric oxide, insert the short roll of oxidized gauze as far as the inside of the screen L, and close the tube with the stopper P. Shut the stopcocks R and Q, and, by applying suction at V, draw a few bubbles through the potash-bulb I. When the liquid recedes in the potash-bulb, it should keep its level for a few minutes; if it does not, there is a leak in some of the connections, which must be discovered and stopped before proceeding with the combustion. When everything is tight, open R and start a slow current of oxygen through the apparatus. Light the two forward burners of the furnace, turning them low to heat the oxidized copper gauze, raise the heat gradually until the tube appears red, and then light the last burner to heat the short roll of oxidized copper gauze. As soon as this end of the tube is hot, light the third burner from the forward end, and a few minutes afterwards the fourth burner, which is directly under the forward end of the boat. Light each burner in succession from this one until all are lighted and turned high enough to heat the tube red hot. Allow them to burn for fifteen minutes, then shut

off the oxygen, close R, open Q, and by means of the stopcock T start a current of air through the apparatus. By means of the gas-cock X lower all the lights of the furnace together very slowly, to avoid cracking the tube, and finally turn them out. About 1 litre of air should run through at the rate of three bubbles a second; this will about half empty the upper bottle L. Close T and Q, detach the absorption apparatus, close the ends of I and J with the little rubber caps, and, after wiping the bulb and tube gently with the linen handkerchief to remove any moisture caused by the handling, place them on the balance. Weigh with the same precautions as before; the increase in weight is carbonic acid, which contains 27.27 per cent. carbon. When several combustions are to be made in succession, as soon as the absorption apparatus is detached as directed above, remove the boat from the tube, replace it with another containing a second sample, attach a second absorption apparatus which has just been weighed, and proceed with the combustion. While the second combustion is in progress, the first absorption apparatus may be weighed, and the weight then obtained can be used for the first weight of the absorption apparatus for a third combustion. Before the absorption apparatus shall have increased .5 gramme in weight from the original weighing, the potash-bulb must be emptied and refilled with a fresh solution. When the final combustion for the day is finished, place a piece of glass rod in the open end of the connection of H, remove the boat from the tube B, replace the short roll of oxidized copper gauze in the tube, insert the stopper P, but not tightly, open R and Q, and loosen the stopper in the bottle F. Place pieces of glass rod in the ends of the safety-tube K, to prevent access of moisture. Whenever the apparatus has been out of use for a day, before making a combustion or set of combustions remove the piece of glass rod from the forward end of the U-tube H, insert in its place a piece of glass tubing drawn out at the forward end to a small orifice, start a current of oxygen through the apparatus, light the burners in the furnace, raising the heat very gradually, keep the tube at a red heat fifteen minutes, turn off the oxygen, start the air, lower the burners gradually, and

pass a litre of air through the apparatus. It will then be ready for the combustion. In very damp weather it is almost impossible to get good results, the condensation of moisture on the absorption apparatus rendering the weighing extremely difficult even when the utmost care is used.

This difficulty may be overcome almost entirely by using another absorption apparatus of similar form as a counterpoise. This counterpoise should be arranged to weigh 2 or 3 grammes less than the absorption apparatus. The superficial area of the two being practically equal, the condensation on the two surfaces is the same.

The calcium chloride in the drying-tube of the absorption apparatus must frequently be renewed, as it absorbs the moisture carried over from the caustic potash, and the success of the operation depends upon the *oxygen and air leaving the absorption apparatus in the same hygroscopic condition as when they enter it.*

2. Volatilization of the Iron in a Current of Hydrochloric Acid Gas, and Subsequent Combustion of the Carbon.

The process is exactly the same in this method as in that just described, a current of hydrochloric acid gas being substituted for one of chlorine. The apparatus for generating this gas is the same as the one used for chlorine, common rock-salt in pieces about as large as a filbert being substituted for manganese dioxide, and sulphuric acid, diluted with two-thirds its bulk of water, for hydrochloric acid.

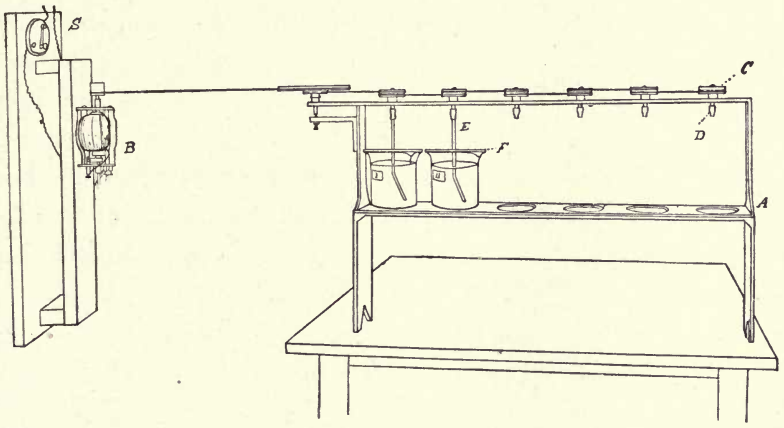
C. 1. Solution in Potassium-Cupric Chloride, Filtration, and Weighing or Combustion of the Residue.

Place 1 gramme of pig-iron, spiegel, or ferro-manganese in a 400 c.c. Griffin's beaker, and add 100 c.c. of a saturated solution of potassium-cupric chloride and 7.5 c.c. hydrochloric acid. For steel or puddled iron, use 3 grammes and add 200 c.c. of potassium-cupric chloride solution and 15 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid. Stir the solution constantly with a glass rod for some minutes at the ordinary temperature. The more it is stirred the more rapid will be the solution of the iron and of the precipitated

copper. The beaker, carefully covered, may now be placed on the top of the air-bath or on a cool part of the iron plate, but the solution should never be heated hotter than 60° or 70° C., and it should be stirred as often as practicable.

As the most tedious part of the determination of carbon in steel is frequently that which has to do with the decomposition of the steel and the solution of the precipitated copper, particularly in the case of low steels, the samples being nearly always in lumps, and it not being desirable to separate these larger particles for fear that the fine stuff alone may not represent a true average, the machine shown in Fig. 72 is very useful.

FIG. 72.



It consists of a framework, A, of brass, cast in one piece for the sake of rigidity. It is fastened to the table by lugs and screws not shown in the cut. The shelf on which the beakers stand has on it a piece of asbestos board with holes to fit exactly the bottoms of the beakers to prevent them from moving. To further increase the stability of the beakers (which should be of very heavy glass) their bottoms are ground on a glass plate with fine emery until they have a good bearing surface all around.

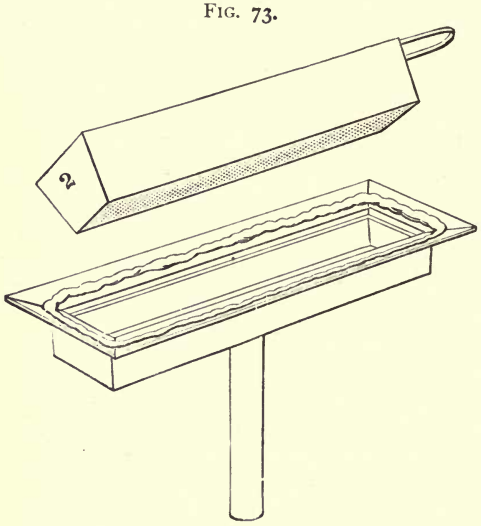
The tops, which are covered when on the machine with a plate of glass, F, ground on one side and perforated to allow the passage of the stirring-rods E, are likewise ground, so that when slightly moistened the ground

glass prevents almost entirely all movement of the covers on the beakers when the machine is in motion.

The small wooden pulleys C are fitted with brass spindles, which run through the upper cross-piece and have on their lower ends pieces of rubber tubing, which serve to hold the stirring-rods. The stirring-rods are bent as shown in the cut, to give the proper motion to the liquid. A small motor, B, adapted to the strength of the current, furnishes the requisite power. The motor, if properly wound, may be attached to an ordinary incandescent lighting current, but a sewing-machine motor run by a dipping battery of three bichromate cells is sufficient to give the necessary number of revolutions.

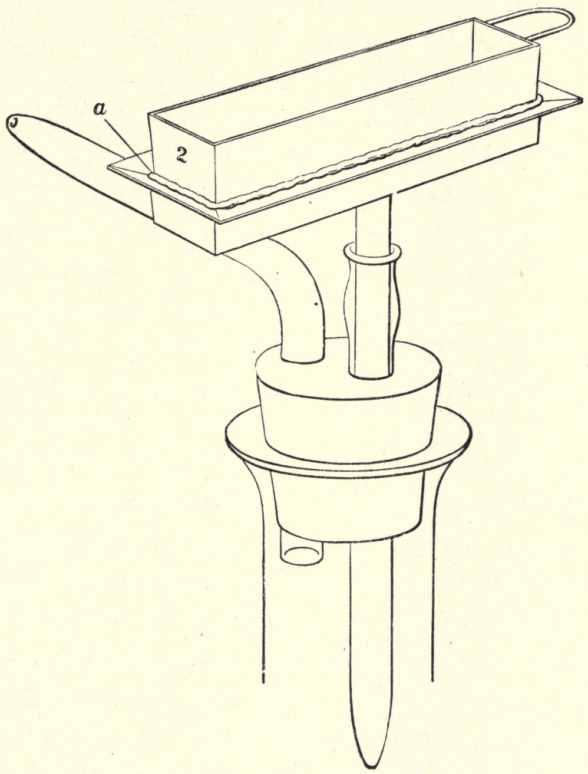
The fact that it is not only unnecessary to use a neutral solution, but that the use of a neutral solution gives inaccurate results, seems now to be thoroughly established by the experiments of the American members of the International Steel Standards Committee. The best practice is to add about 10 per cent. of hydrochloric acid to the solution of the potassium-cupric chloride. The reactions occurring may be considered as $Fe + CuCl_2 = FeCl_2 + Cu$ and $Cu + CuCl_2 = 2CuCl$. The part taken by the potassium chloride does not seem very clear, but the fact remains that the precipitated copper is much more soluble in the double salt than in any other menstruum. When the precipitated copper is all, or very nearly all, dissolved, which is usually the case in half an hour after the solution of potassium-cupric chloride is added to the drillings, run a little of the acidulated double chloride around the sides of the beaker by means of the rod, wash the rod over the beaker with a jet of water, and let the beaker stand for a few

FIG. 73.



minutes to allow the carbonaceous matter to settle.* The best form of filtering-apparatus is shown in the annexed sketches. It consists of the perforated platinum boat (Fig. 73), which fits in the platinum holder. To prepare the boat for use, place it in the holder, as shown in Fig. 74,

FIG. 74.



attach the pump, but do not start it. Fill the boat with prepared abestos † suspended in water, pour enough around the outside of the boat to fill the space *a*, Fig. 74, and start the filter-pump. Continue pouring the suspended abestos into the space *a*, Fig. 74, until enough

* Barba suggests adding to the solution ignited asbestos in water to make the carbonaceous matter settle and to prevent its clogging the filter. This is a most admirable suggestion and should be generally adopted.

† See page 27.

is drawn into the joint to make a good packing. By pressing it in all round with a spatula the joint may be made very tight. Pour enough of the suspended asbestos into the boat to make a good, thick felt, and press it down firmly all over the bottom of the boat with something like the square end of a lead-pencil, to make it compact. Detach the pump, remove the boat from the holder carefully so as to leave the packing on the sides of the holder, and move it up with the end of a spatula, so that it will remain as shown in Fig. 73. Place another boat in the holder, press the packing into the joint *a*, Fig. 74, with the end of a spatula, fill the boat with suspended asbestos, and start the pump. If necessary, pour a little of the finer suspended asbestos fibre into the joint to make it perfectly tight, and prepare the felt in the boat as before. Dry the boats, and ignite them in the combustion-tube, two at a time, in a current of oxygen. Fit one of these prepared boats in the holder, press the packing into the joint as before, first moistening it slightly if it has become dry, start the pump, and pour into the boat enough suspended asbestos, which has been ignited in oxygen, to form a thin film on the top of the felt. This film will hold the silica, ferric phosphate, etc., from the carbonaceous residue, and, after the combustion, will usually turn up at the edges, so that it can readily be detached from the main felt, leaving the boat ready for another filtration.

The boat being thus prepared, pour into it the solution of the iron or steel, guiding the stream by a small glass rod held against the tip of the beaker. The solution, if the joint *a*, Fig. 74, is tight, and the pump works well, will usually run through the felt as rapidly as it can be poured into the boat. When the supernatant fluid has all run through, transfer the carbonaceous matter to the boat by a fine stream of cold water from a washing-flask. Pour into the beaker about 10 c.c. of dilute hydrochloric acid, run it all around the inside of the beaker by means of the rod to dissolve any adhering salt, wash the glass rod and wash down the sides of the beaker with a jet of water, and decant the acid into the boat, filling it almost up to the edge. Wash the carbonaceous matter in the boat thoroughly with hot water by filling the boat from the beaker and allowing it to suck through dry, but do not attempt to throw a jet of water into

the boat from the washing-flask, as it will be almost certain to throw some of the carbonaceous matter from the boat or cause it to crawl over the side. In decanting the water from the beaker, the lip must not be allowed to touch the surface of the liquid in the boat, as a film of carbonaceous matter will run up the inside of the beaker. Pour a little dilute acid into the joint between the boat and holder, allow it to suck through the packing, and wash it several times with hot water. The carbonaceous matter from pig-iron, puddled iron, spiegel, ferro-manganese, and ingot steel usually washes like sand, but that from steel which has been hardened, tempered, hammered, or rolled is apt to be more or less gummy, stopping the filter and rendering the filtration and washing prolonged and tedious. It is also apt to adhere more or less to the sides of the beaker, and must be wiped off by a little wad of ignited fibrous asbestos, held in a pair of platinum-pointed forceps like those shown in Fig. 75.

This wad is then placed in the boat. When the carbonaceous matter is thoroughly washed and sucked dry, detach the pump, remove the boat from the holder, wipe the outside carefully with a piece of silk, place it in a dish covered with a watch-glass, and dry it in a water-bath or an air-bath at 100° C. When dry, insert the boat in the tube (Fig. 71), and burn off the carbon as directed on page 154. Instead of the porcelain tube, a platinum tube of the dimensions shown in Fig. 58, page 135, may be used to very great advantage. The U-tube C contains water. The limb of the U-tube D nearest the platinum tube contains anhydrous cupric sulphate * and the forward limb anhydrous cuprous chloride.† E contains dried, *not fused*, calcium chloride, and in the bulb next to G is a small wad of cotton-wool. The object of the cuprous chloride is to absorb any chlorine that may come over during the combustion. If any should come over it would be mixed with hydrochloric acid and moisture, and all then would be absorbed by the water in C and the salts in the tube D. The burners in the furnace should be lighted in the order directed on page 153, and, after they

FIG. 75.

* See page 53.

† See page 54.

are all lighted, ten minutes' time is ample to burn off the carbonaceous matter in the boat. From the time of putting in the boat, fifty minutes' time is ample for finishing the combustion, including the displacement of the oxygen by air.

The time required when using a porcelain tube is somewhat longer, owing to the danger incurred of cracking the tube if the heat is increased or diminished too rapidly. A platinum tube shorter than the one here figured is not to be recommended, as it cannot contain enough oxygen to burn the carbon to carbonic acid, and a consequent loss is often unavoidable. Duplicate results by this method should rarely vary more than .005 of a per cent. carbon. When using 3 grammes of the sample, the percentage of carbon is obtained by dividing the weight of carbonic acid by 11 and multiplying by 100.

Instead of the perforated boat and holder described above, the carbonaceous residue may be filtered in a small platinum tube fitting inside the combustion-tube. It is made as represented in Fig. 76.

FIG. 76.

The small perforated disk of platinum rests on a seat in the tube as shown in the sketch. The felt on the disk is prepared in the same way as directed for the boat, and, after drying the carbonaceous residue, the disk is moved upward in the filtering-tube, to allow the gas to pass through the filtering-tube during the combustion. The boat has several advantages over the filtering-tube, the principal one being that the boat has a much larger filtering-surface, and, besides, there is no danger of the felt being disturbed during the filtering, while the disk in the tube may be loosened in its seat and allow some of the carbonaceous matter to pass around it. If the boats when not in use are kept carefully covered, the same felts may be used for a large number of filtrations; but occasionally they become clogged, and then it is better to renew them.

Instead of either of these forms of filtering-apparatus, a simple glass tube, as represented in Fig. 77, may be used. The closely coiled spiral of platinum wire fits in the tube as shown in the sketch. On this is placed a rather thick layer of ignited long-fibre asbestos,

and ignited asbestos suspended in water is poured over it to make a solid felt. The tube may be used in a stand, as represented in Fig. 78,

FIG. 77.

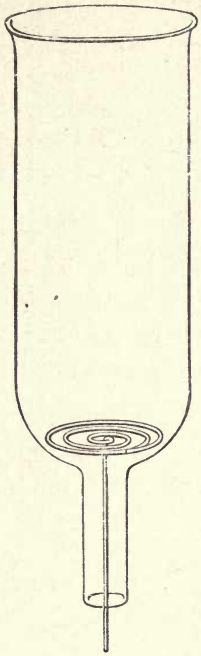
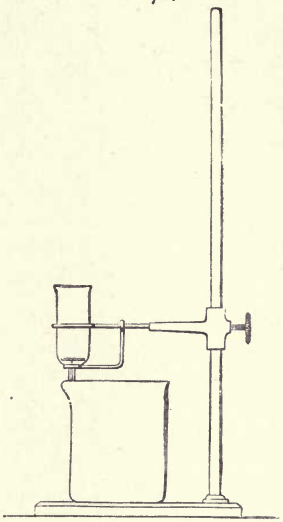
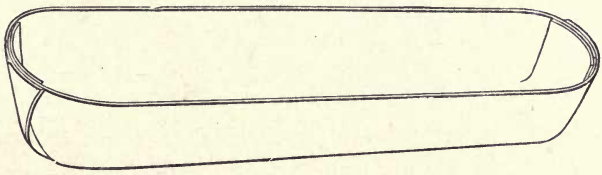


FIG. 78.



or it may be used with the filter-pump under very gentle pressure. Filter and wash the carbonaceous matter, and while still moist transfer it to the boat (Fig. 79) by opening out the sides of the boat, inverting

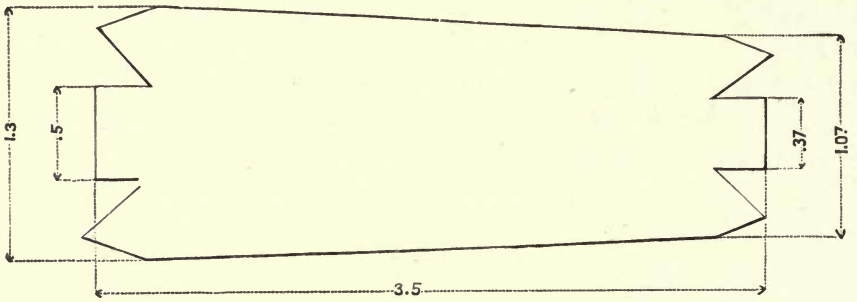
FIG. 79.



the tube over it, and allowing the felt and spiral to slide out of the tube. Wipe off any carbonaceous matter that may remain on the sides of the tube, or that may have adhered to the spiral in removing

it, with little wads of fibrous asbestos held in the forceps (Fig. 75). Place these wads in the boat, bend the sides of the latter into their proper shape, dry the boat and contents at 100° C., insert the boat in the porcelain or platinum tube, and burn off the carbonaceous matter as before directed. This boat is made by cutting a piece of

FIG. 80.



platinum-foil in the shape shown in Fig. 80, and bending it up over a brass former into the shape shown in Fig. 79.

Instead of burning the carbonaceous matter in a current of oxygen, it may be burned by sulphuric and chromic acids in the arrangement shown in Fig. 81. P′ is an empty U-tube, O is a tube containing silver sulphate dissolved in strong sulphuric acid, P contains anhydrous cupric sulphate, Q granular dried calcium chloride, a Liebig bulb and drying-tube R constitute the absorption apparatus, S is the safety-guard tube, and L, L constitute the arrangement for passing air through the apparatus. The air is freed from carbonic acid in passing through the U-tube M filled with lumps of fused potassium hydroxide. Transfer the carbonaceous matter and asbestos to the flask A, insert the stopper carrying the bulb-tube B, close the stopcock C, and connect the apparatus as shown in Fig. 81, including the weighed absorption apparatus. See that the joints are all tight, and then pour into B 10 c.c. of a saturated solution of chromic acid, admit it to the flask A by opening the stopcock C, and then pour into B 100 c.c. strong sulphuric acid with a little chromic acid which has been heated almost to boiling. Let this run into A slowly, connect the

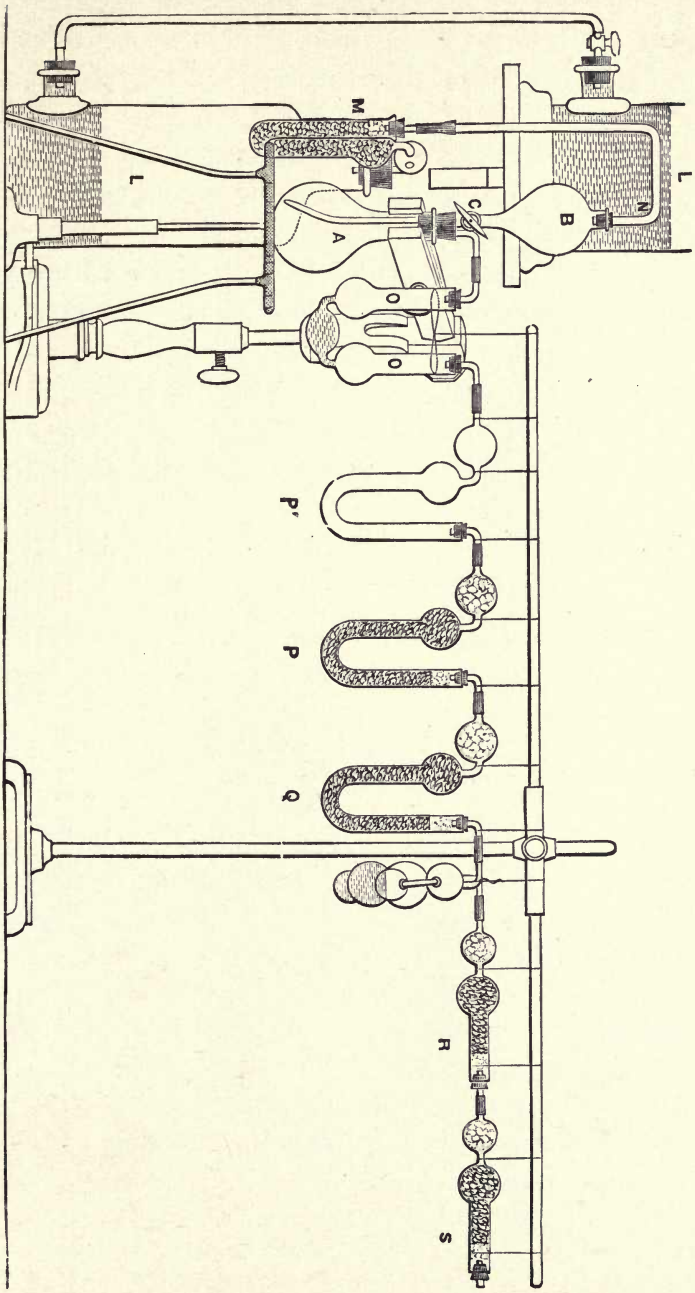


Fig. 81.

air apparatus by the tube N, and start a slow current of air through. Light a very low light under A, and increase it gradually until the liquid is heated to the boiling-point. Gradually lower the light while the current of air continues to pass, and when about 1 litre of air has passed through the apparatus after the light is extinguished, detach and weigh the absorption apparatus, with the precautions mentioned on page 137.

The carbonaceous residue may also be weighed directly instead of being burned off. In this method, filter on a Gooch crucible or on counterpoised filters,* dry at 100° C., and weigh. Burn off the carbonaceous matter and weigh the residue: the difference between the two weights is carbonaceous matter, which contains about 70 per cent. of carbon † in steel or iron free from graphite. Of course this method of direct weighing is applicable only to samples when all the carbon is in the so-called combined condition.

Modifications by Job and Davies. ‡

The following are the principal details of the apparatus (Fig. 82):

A combustion-furnace, K, nine inches in length, having three Bunsen burners with spreaders.

A Berlin porcelain combustion-tube, G, twenty inches in length and three-fourths inch inside diameter, containing about four inches in length of closely rolled copper gauze, I, fitting at first rather loosely in the tube, and thoroughly oxidized prior to use,—exactly as in the old method,—with pieces of clay pipe stem between the cupric oxide and the end of the tube to prevent the former from being forced out of place when the boat runs up against it in the determination. A piece of platinum-foil as long as the boat, rolled into tubular form, fitting closely in the combustion-tube and pushed into place next to the cupric oxide, with the edges somewhat bevelled so that the boat when quickly pushed in with the wire will run up smoothly upon the foil. This contrivance has been found to

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* See page 29. † American Chem. Jour., iii. 245.

‡ Prepared for this book by Messrs. Robert Job and Charles T. Davies from a paper read before the Philadelphia Section of the American Chem. Soc., September 13, 1900.

completely prevent cracking of the porcelain tube, even when a cold boat is thrust into the red-hot tube.

Asbestos shields at H, H, through which the tube passes, prevent possible heating of the ends.

A six-inch U-tube containing pieces of thoroughly dehydrated cupric sulphate about one-eighth inch in diameter in one arm, F, and dehydrated cuprous chloride of the same size in the other, E, with a small piece of glass wool between them and also upon the tops, as recommended by Blair.

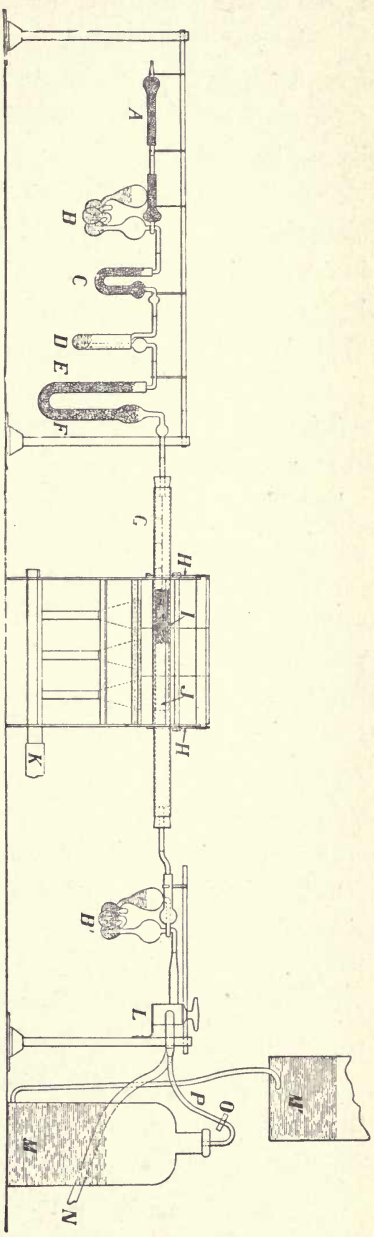
A small bubble-tube, D, containing about 10 c.c. of a saturated solution of silver sulphate in sulphuric acid of 1.40 sp. gr.

A four-inch U-tube, C, containing thoroughly dehydrated granular calcium chloride in particles of about one-eighth inch in diameter, free from powder.

Potash bulbs B, with calcium chloride tube attached, the bulbs being about one inch in diameter and one and a quarter inches high; the cluster when filled ready for use containing about 35 c.c. of potassium hydrate (1.27 sp. gr.), and weighing, including the calcium chloride, about 80 grammes; the calcium chloride tube is about two and a quarter inches long and one-half inch in diameter.

The potash bulbs B′ are exactly the same as B, but the calcium chloride

FIG. 82.



tube remains empty and serves merely to prevent any possibility of spattering of potassium hydrate solution into the combustion-tube.

The three-way cock L leads to the oxygen tank N, containing oxygen free from hydrocarbons, and to the air-pressure P, the latter being produced by two two-litre bottles, M and M′, and the pressure regulated by a screw-clamp, O.

In the regular determinations 3 grammes of steel are dissolved in about 200 c.c. of double chloride of copper and potassium acidified with hydrochloric acid, and filtered upon a platinum boat, washed with dilute hydrochloric acid, then with water, and dried at not exceeding 110° C. after the usual manner.

In heating the furnace, the middle burner is lighted and turned up one-half for five minutes, then full; at the same time the two other burners are turned up one-half, and after five minutes given the full flame. The tube will be red hot in about fifteen minutes from the start, and is ready for the day's determinations without further attention.

The weighed potash bulbs B are then connected in place, the gum stopper next to B′ removed, and the boat in the combustion-tube, if present, quickly hooked out upon a porcelain tile with a copper wire. The oxygen is then started through the purifying potash bulbs B′ at the rate of about four bubbles per second, the dried boat for the determination removed from the oven, pushed quickly into its position, and the gum stopper inserted promptly. The current of oxygen is then let pass for seven minutes at the same rate of speed, though only about three minutes are actually required ordinarily for the combustion. The oxygen is then shut off, the three-way cock turned, and the air passed for twelve and a half minutes at the rate of six or seven bubbles per second, or as fast as the bubbles can pass and remain separate, about one litre of air being passed in this time.

The entire combustion is thus finished within twenty minutes, when the bulbs are removed and another set, previously weighed, are connected and the second combustion proceeded with.

The potash bulbs should be refilled after absorbing about 2.5 grammes of carbon dioxide, and the calcium chloride tube at the same time. Care

must be taken to have the calcium chloride thoroughly dehydrated, in small eight-inch granular form, without powder, and shaken down as compactly as possible by tapping lightly with the finger upon the tube and filling as needed until full. A very little cotton batting is placed at either end. The calcium chloride tube C immediately preceding the weighed potassium hydrate bulbs should be filled in the same manner, and should be filled with freshly dehydrated calcium chloride after about fifty determinations, or when the calcium chloride in the end nearest the silver sulphate solution becomes slightly moist.

In practice the greater part of the calcium chloride may be used over and over again, dehydrating when removed by heating in an iron or porcelain dish.

The copper salts in the U-tube should be thoroughly dehydrated by heating to a temperature of about 110° C. and aspirating slowly with air. This can be accomplished very easily by placing the U-tube flat upon the steam table and attaching slow suction for about one hour. This should be done as soon as the cupric sulphate tends to become blue or green upon the top of the arm F of the U-tube. When ready for use the cupric sulphate should be very nearly white and the cuprous chloride a dull brown.

It is very advantageous to rechlorinate the solution of double chloride of copper and potassium after the method of Dr. Sargent, as detailed in the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, vol. xxii. p. 210. As the solution, however, gradually becomes neutral, we find it desirable to make addition of hydrochloric acid after rechlorinating in sufficient amount to restore the original acidity and thus prevent the separation of the salts and increase rapidity of solution. This may readily be done by titrating 5 c.c. of the rechlorinated solution with standard potassium hydrate solution in the cold, taking as the end reaction the point at which the ferric hydrate formed just fails to go into solution after repeated shaking. Titration is then made with 5 c.c. of a solution of one part hydrochloric acid to thirteen parts water (the normal acidity of the double chloride solution), with a little neutral ferric solution as indicator. Comparison of the acidity of the two solutions with the volume of the solution rechlorinated will show the amount of hydrochloric acid needed.

As to the accuracy of results, we have checked repeatedly upon various standard steels and have obtained uniform and practically identical results with those obtained by the regular combustion method with platinum tube.

In the above apparatus a number of details have been taken from those presented by Dr. G. W. Sargent, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, vol. xxii. p. 277, and for these we wish to make hearty acknowledgment.

The Repeated Use of the Double Chloride of Copper and Potassium for the Solution of Steel or Iron in Estimating Carbon.*

In the *Chemical News*, vol. lxxix. p. 169, which appeared April 14 of last year, there is an article headed "The Estimation of Carbon in Steel; Apparatus and Materials," signed J. T., in the course of which it is stated that the copper-ammonium chloride may be re-used as many as eight times, provided it is oxidized by drawing air through it after each solution, and provided the practice of allowing the sample to dissolve overnight is adopted.

Copper-potassium chloride, owing to its freedom from organic matter, has supplanted the ammonium salt. Most chemists use the former in a hydrochloric acid solution, when, by the aid of a stirring machine, the drillings are dissolved in less than an hour. The reaction is expressed in the following equation:

$$Fe + CuCl_2 = FeCl_2 + Cu \text{ and } Cu + CuCl_2 = Cu_2Cl_2.$$

If now the cuprous chloride be oxidized to cupric, there is no reason why the double chloride solution should not be used repeatedly until the accumulated iron salts become too great. As stated above, this has been done, but the time consumed in oxidizing by a current of air was too long: several days of an almost continuous current of air through a litre of the acid double chloride failed to completely oxidize the copper salt. The source of my air-current was a filter-pump, making the waste of water very considerable. Therefore, I decided to try the effect of chlorinating the solution direct.

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* George W. Sargent, of the Carpenter Steel Company, Reading, Pennsylvania, in the Journal of the American Chemical Society, xxii. 210.

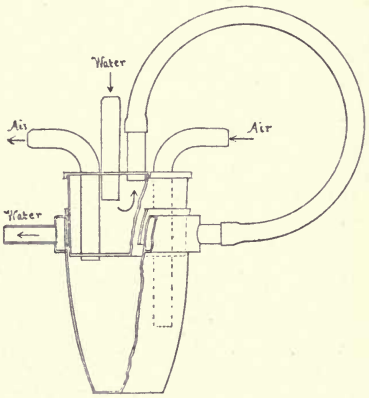
The result has been most agreeable. At the present time we have three bottles of three quarts' capacity; in one, the filtered double chloride ready for the solution of the drillings is kept; the second receives the undiluted filtrate from the carbon; while the third, filled with the filtrates, stands in the corner of the hood with a current of chlorine gas passing through it. It requires just a day to chlorinate three quarts, and that is about the amount consumed each day. When chlorinated the solution, instead of being of a dirty brown, has almost the original color of copper-potassium chloride. After standing overnight in the hood and being filtered, the objectionable odor of chlorine is gone and the solution is again ready for use. The chlorinated double chloride is more energetic in its solvent action. In some instances the solution of the drillings has been accomplished in fifteen minutes.

As many as eleven solutions have been made with one quantity of the double chloride, and the time required for the eleventh solution and filtration was very little longer than for the first.

Combustion in the Shimer Crucible.

In this apparatus combustion is effected in a special water-jacketed platinum crucible (the details of which are shown in Fig. 83) closed by a hollow water-cooled stopper made of brass. An ordinary rubber band around the stopper insures a tight joint, and the water passing through it and around the upper part of the crucible prevents the rubber from softening when the lower half of the crucible is heated to a high temperature. For combustion of carbon from steel or pig-iron air alone is used. Other novel parts of the apparatus are a small brass tube for cupric oxide; a glass tube filled with glass beads, wet with water, for retaining hydrochloric acid and chlorine; and a special funnel for rapid filtration and transference of the carbon.

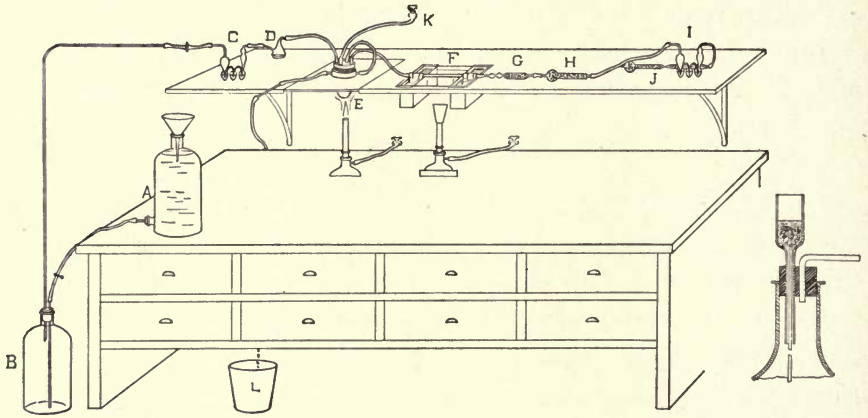
FIG. 83.



Beginning at the left, Fig. 84, the train of apparatus, conveniently disposed on a heavy asbestos board shelf, is as follows:

For air-pressure, a large aspirator bottle, A, filled with distilled water, and connected with a lower bottle, B, by means of a tube reaching to the bottom of the latter. C, potassium hydroxide bulbs. D, a small guard bottle. The crucible, E, connected with a water supply, K, and waste, L. The crucible is supported by passing it about half-way through a heavy piece of asbestos board. Under the crucible an adjustable Bunsen burner or an

FIG. 84.



upright blast-lamp. A brass tube, F, containing rather fine cupric oxide, but free from powder, in its central portion, is heated to a red heat by a special burner, for about two inches. This tube is twelve inches long and is $\frac{7}{16}$ inch in external diameter. Attachments are made by passing the rubber tubing over the ends of the tube which is supported in a rectangular opening in the shelf. The ends of the tube are cooled by a long piece of heavy blotting-paper fastened around each end and dipping into the water contained in tin boxes attached to the shelf. The glass-bead tube, G, internally wet with distilled water and externally cooled by wet filter-paper, for retaining hydrochloric acid and chlorine. A large calcium chloride tube, H. Potassium hydroxide bulbs and drying tube, I. A guard-tube of calcium chloride, J.

The carbon is filtered on a filter-tube $\frac{7}{8}$ inch in internal diameter. A small glass rod, flattened out at the end, passes through the stem of the

funnel and projects several inches beyond. A mass of glass wool ½ inch deep is packed into the bottom of the tube, and on this is deposited, under suction, the filter, about ⅛ inch deep, of finely divided ignited asbestos. After filtration and washing the contents of the tube are pushed up by means of the projecting glass rod until the filter projects. The filter can now be easily picked off the glass wool base by use of a curved forceps. The carbon may be quickly and conveniently dried by placing the filter upon a previously warmed and labelled scorifier.

In direct combustions of difficultly soluble alloys mix 0.2 gramme of the finely pulverized sample with 2.5 grammes of pulverized lead chromate, place the mixture in a porcelain crucible, cover with 0.5 gramme of the chromate, and heat for an hour in a current of oxygen.

2. Solution of the Iron in Cupric Sulphate, Filtration, and Combustion of the Residue in a Boat in a Current of Oxygen.

To 3 grammes of steel in a 400 c.c. beaker add 150 c.c. of solution of cupric sulphate, made by dissolving 200 grammes of the copper salt in water, adding a dilute solution of caustic soda until a slight permanent precipitate appears, allowing it to settle, filtering through asbestos, and diluting to 1 litre. For pig-iron, spiegel, and ferro-manganese, use 1 gramme, and 50 c.c. of cupric sulphate solution. Heat the solution gently, and stir well until decomposition is complete. Filter in a glass filtering-tube on asbestos, as described on page 162. Wash well with water, transfer to a boat, as directed on page 163, dry, and burn in a porcelain tube, as directed on page 154. The results are apt to be a little low, owing to the difficulty of thoroughly oxidizing the mass of copper mixed with the carbonaceous matter.

Instead of filtering off the mass of copper, carbonaceous matter, etc., decant the clear supernatant fluid through the filtering-tube, wash several times by decantation, and then dissolve the copper in potassium-cupric chloride, cupric chloride, or ferric chloride. Filter, wash the residue with a little dilute hydrochloric acid, and then with cold water, transfer to a boat, and burn as directed on page 154 *et seq.*

3. Solution of the Iron in Cupric Sulphate, and Oxidation of the Residue, by Chromic and Sulphuric Acids.

Treat the sample with solution of cupric sulphate, as in the method just described. Allow the precipitated copper and carbonaceous matter to settle, pour off the clear supernatant liquid, and transfer the residue to the flask A (Fig. 81, page 165) by means of a platinum spatula and a fine jet of water. The water used should not exceed 20 or 25 c.c.* The apparatus is that sketched in Fig. 81, the only difference being that the tube O contains merely a little strong sulphuric acid. Effect the combustion exactly as described on page 164.

DETERMINATION OF GRAPHITIC CARBON.

Karsten gave the first information in regard to the existence of graphite in pig-iron, and he suggested dissolving the sample in nitric acid with the addition of a few drops of hydrochloric acid, in hydrochloric acid alone, or in dilute sulphuric acid, boiling the residue with caustic potash, filtering, washing again with hydrochloric acid and finally with water, and weighing the residue as graphite. A very interesting comparison of the results obtained by the use of diffierent solvents is given by Drown.* The usual method is as follows. Treat 1 gramme of pig-iron or 10 grammes of steel with an excess of hydrochloric acid (1.1 sp. gr.). When all the iron is dissolved, boil for a few minutes, allow the graphite to settle, and decant the supernatant fluid on an asbestos filter, using either the perforated boat, Fig. 73, or the filtering-tube, Figs. 77 and 78. Wash several times with hot water by decantation, then pour on the residue in the beaker 30 c.c. of a solution of caustic potash (sp. gr. 1.1), and, when the effervescence ceases, heat the solution to boiling. Filter on the same filter, transfer the graphite etc., to the filter, wash with hot water again, and finally with alcohol and ether. Burn the graphite by one of the methods given under "Determination of Total Carbon," and from the weight of carbonic acid obtained calculate the percentage of carbon existing as *graphite*.

* Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, iii. 42.

It frequently happens, when the sample is a high steel, that the residue which remains after treating it as above is black, and contains carbon, but it is not crystalline in appearance, and bears no resemblance to graphite. The same steel will dissolve completely in nitric acid, and when filtered will not leave a trace of carbon on the felt. Steels containing graphite give appreciably less carbon when dissolved in nitric acid than when dissolved in hydrochloric acid. The method giving probably the most accurate and certainly the most uniform results is as follows. Dissolve the weighed sample in nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.2), using 15 c.c. of acid to each gramme taken for analysis. Filter on the perforated boat or on an ignited asbestos filter, in a glass tube, transfer the residue to the filter, and wash thoroughly with hot water. Treat the residue on the filter with hot caustic potash solution, 1.1 sp. gr. (as the silicon is all oxidized to silica there will be no effervescence), wash thoroughly with hot water, then with a little dilute hydrochloric acid, and finally with hot water. Burn the carbon by one of the methods previously mentioned and calculate the carbonic acid obtained to carbon, and call the result *graphite*.*

DETERMINATION OF COMBINED CARBON.

Indirect Method.

Having determined the total carbon and the graphite, by subtracting the latter from the former we obtain the amount of carbon existing in the *combined condition.*

Direct Method.

This method was first introduced by Eggertz† in 1862. It is based on the fact that when steel containing carbon is dissolved in nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), the carbon, which sometimes at first separates out in flocks of a brownish color, is eventually dissolved, giving to the solution a depth

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* Shimer (Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc., xvii. 873) has shown that titanium carbide is insoluble in dilute hydrochloric acid and that the nitric acid method is the only accurate one for the determination of graphite.

† Jern-Kontorets Annaler, 1862, p. 54; 1874, p. 176; 1881, p. 301; Chem. News, vii. 254; xliv. 173.

of color directly proportionate to the amount of combined carbon in the steel. To use this in practice it is only necessary to determine accurately the amount of combined carbon contained in a steel, by a combustion method, and to compare the depth of color in a solution of this standard with that of any unknown steel, in order to ascertain the amount of carbon in the latter. There is, however, a limitation to the application of this method. Reference was made on page 132 to the fact that combined carbon is now believed to exist in two conditions in steel, or rather that under certain circumstances a portion of the combined carbon changes its condition, and, from a chemical point of view, while it is still combined carbon, in that it is soluble in nitric acid, it fails to impart so dark a color to its nitric acid solution as it did in its original state. The circumstances under which a change of this kind occurs are quite well known, and are merely those occasioned by the mechanical treatment to which steel is submitted, such as hammering, rolling, hardening, tempering, etc.* It may be stated, then, as a general proposition, that *the standard steel for the color-test should be of the same kind and in the same physical condition as the samples to be tested.*

To obtain the best results samples should be taken from the original ingots which have not been reheated, rolled, or hammered; Bessemer steel should be compared with Bessemer, crucible with crucible, open hearth with open hearth; the standard should contain approximately the same amount of carbon as the samples to be tested, and should have as nearly as possible the same chemical composition. The only elements that seem to have any decided effect on the color of the nitric acid solution are copper, cobalt, and chromium.

Weigh out carefully .2 gramme of each sample, including the standard, into test-tubes 6 inches (150 mm.) long and 5/8 inch (16 mm.) in diameter. The test-tubes should be perfectly clean and dry, and each one marked with the number of the sample on a small gummed label near the top. A little wooden rack (Fig. 85) is convenient for holding

* Two very interesting papers on this subject will be found in the Chem. News, J. S. Parker, "On the Varying Condition of Carbon in Steel," xlii. 88; T. W. Hogg, "On the Condition of Carbon in Steel," xlii. 130.

the test-tubes in the weighing-room, and to avoid all chance of error the tube is not placed in the rack until the sample has been weighed and is ready to be transferred. A little platinum or aluminum dish about 1½ inches (40 mm.) in diameter, with a spout, and furnished with a counterpoise (Fig. 44, page 36), is very convenient for holding the drillings, which are brushed from it into the test-tube with a camel's-hair brush. A very excellent form of water-bath is shown in Fig. 86. It may be provided with a constant level arrangement, consisting of a tubulated bottle, the height of the end *b* of the vertical tube *a* fixing the level of the water in the bath. A is the bath and B the rack.

FIG. 85.

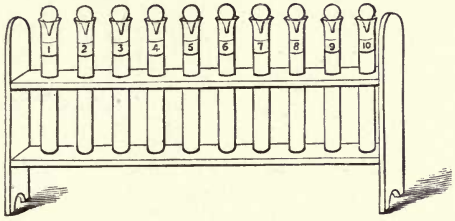
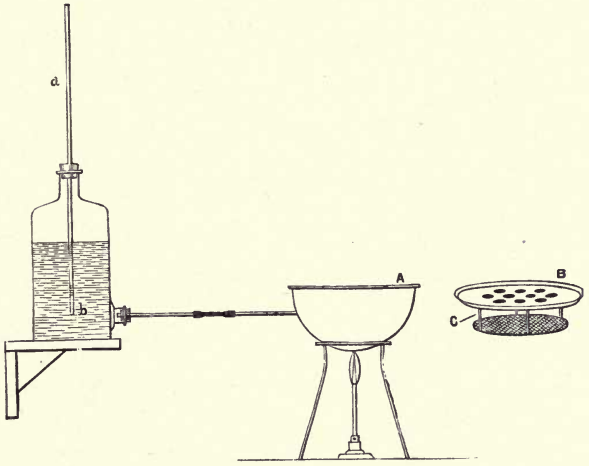


FIG. 86.



The top of the rack is of sheet-copper, perforated to receive the test-tubes, the bottoms of which rest on the coarse copper gauze, which is joined to the top by the uprights C. The top of the rack rests on a flange around the top of the bath.

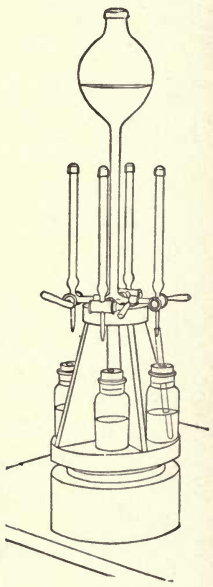
Place the test-tubes in the rack B, and stand the rack in the bath

which contains cold water. Drop into each test-tube, from a pipette, the proper amount of nitric acid (sp. gr. 1.2). For steels containing less than .3 per cent. carbon use 3 c.c. nitric acid; from .3 to .5 per cent. carbon, 4 c.c.; from .5 to .8 per cent., 5 c.c.; from .8 to 1 per cent., 6 c.c.; and over 1 per cent., 7 c.c. An insufficient amount of acid gives the solution a slightly darker tint than it should properly have.

The apparatus shown in Fig. 87* is useful for the rapid addition of measured quantities of nitric acid to the samples.

It consists of a glass reservoir holding 750 c.c., communicating below with four burettes graduated to *deliver* various quantities of acid up to 10 c.c. Each burette is furnished with a loose-fitting glass cap. The burettes are fitted with three-way glass stopcocks, so that a quarter of a revolution connects them with the reservoir, and when the proper amount of acid has run in, the stopcock is turned another quarter, which shuts off the reservoir and completely empties the burette, thus delivering the exact amount of acid measured into the test-tube containing the weighed sample of steel in which carbon is to be determined.

FIG. 87.



As shown in the cut, each test-tube stands in a bottle of cold water to prevent too violent action of the acid during solution. The whole apparatus is mounted on a rotary stand, and, as used at the laboratory of the Bethlehem Iron Company, is contained in a small hood near the drill and balance described on page 16, so that the operator, seated on a revolving stool, can add acid to one sample of steel while the drillings of the next sample are falling into the balance-pan.

The apparatus, as here shown, is a modification by Mr. Albert L. Colby, of the Bethlehem Iron Company, of an apparatus first designed by Mr. E. A. Uehling in 1884.

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* Communicated to the author.

The nitric acid is made by adding its own volume of water to acid of the usual strength (1.4 sp. gr.). It should be absolutely free from chlorine or hydrochloric acid, as, according to Eggertz, .0001 gramme chlorine in a nitric acid solution of .1 gramme iron in 2.5 c.c. nitric acid gives a decidedly yellow color. The nitric acid should be added slowly, to prevent violent action, and the drillings should not be too fine, for the same reason. Place in the top of each test-tube a small glass bulb * or a very small funnel, heat the water in the bath to boiling, and boil until all the carbonaceous matter is dissolved, shaking the tubes from time to time to prevent the formation of a film of oxide. The time required for solution is for low steels about twenty minutes and for high steels (over 1 per cent. carbon) forty-five minutes. After entire solution of the carbonaceous matter, prolonged heating tends to make the color lighter; therefore, as soon as the absence of small bubbles and the disappearance of any brownish flocculent matter show complete solution, remove the rack from the bath and stand it in a dish of cold water. The dish should be about the same size as the bath, so that the top will be covered by the top of the rack, thus excluding the light from the solutions, in which case the color will not fade for a long time. Under all circumstances the solutions should be kept out of the light, and especially out of direct sunlight, as much as possible. If there should be necessarily, in the steels operated on at one time, a wide range in carbon, the test-tubes should be removed from the bath as fast as their respective contents are dissolved and placed in cold water in a dark place. The appearance of the drillings will often give an idea of the approximate carbon contents of a sample, but when there is no clue whatever, it is best to begin by adding 3 c.c. nitric acid to the weighed portion in the test-tube, and increase the amount 1 c.c. at a time as the depth of color of the solution or the amount of flocculent carbonaceous matter indicates a higher carbon percentage. To compare the colors of

* These bulbs are easily made by sealing one end of a glass tube in the blow-pipe flame, heating it, blowing a bulb of the proper size, allowing it to cool, heating it above the neck, and drawing it out as shown in Fig. 85.

the solutions, pour the standard into one of the carbon tubes (Fig. 88), wash out the test-tube with a little cold water, add it to the solution in the carbon tube, and dilute to a convenient amount.

This dilution should be sufficient to make the volume of the diluted standard at least twice as great as the volume of acid originally used to dissolve the sample, as this amount of water is necessary to destroy the color due to the ferric nitrate. It should not, however, greatly exceed this amount, and should be some convenient multiple of the carbon contents of the standard in tenths of a per cent. Thus, if a standard contains .45 per cent. carbon, dilute the solution in the carbon tube to 9 c.c., then each c.c. will equal .05 per cent. The carbon tubes should be ½ inch (12 mm.) in diameter, holding at least 30 c.c., and graduated to $\frac{1}{10}$ c.c. The tubes should have exactly the same diameter, and the glass should be perfectly colorless and have walls of the same thickness. They should, of course, be most accurately graduated.

FIG. 88.

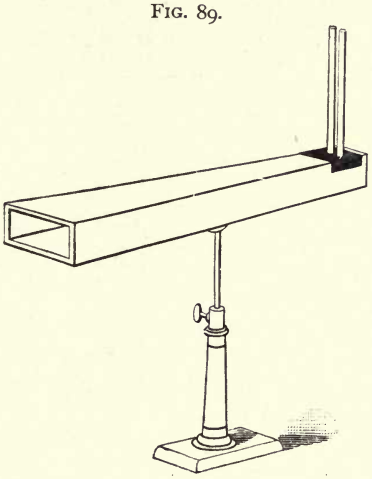
Mr. E. F. Wood,* of the Homestead Works, leaves the lower ends of the tubes free from graduations to give a clear space for comparing the colors. He considers this especially necessary in low steels, for which he uses 1 gramme of the sample, dissolves in 25 c.c. of nitric acid, boils for from five to seven minutes in a glycerine bath at 140° C., and compares in tubes ¾ inch (18 mm.) in diameter.

The standard having been prepared, pour the solution of the sample to be tested into another carbon tube, rinse the test-tube into it with a little cold water, and compare the colors. If the solution of the sample is darker than that of the standard, add water little by little, shaking the tube well to mix the solution until the shades are exactly the same. Allow a minute or two for the solution to run down the walls of the tube, and read the volume. If the standard was diluted as above, then, of course, each c.c. will equal .05 per cent. carbon, and if the volume of

* Communicated to the author.

the sample is 10.5 c.c. it will contain .525 per cent. carbon. If the solution of the sample when first transferred to the tube should be lighter in color than the standard, a lower standard must be used, or this one may be diluted to, say, 13.5 c.c., in which case the number of c.c. divided by 3 will give the percentage of carbon in tenths. The color may be compared by holding the two tubes in front of a piece of white paper held towards the light, but a camera made of light wood and blackened inside is most convenient, and at night is quite invaluable. It is shown in Fig. 89, and consists of a box 3½ inches (90 mm.) high inside, 1½ inches (38 mm.) wide at one end, and 5 inches (127 mm.) at the other. It is 24 inches (610 mm.) long, and is supported on a rod, which can be raised and lowered to suit the convenience of the observer. The small end is closed by a piece of ground glass, which slides in through a slot on top 1 inch (25 mm.) from the end. Immediately beyond this is another slot to receive a thin piece of faintly blue glass, which is inserted when the tests are made at night, using an oil-lamp placed on a stand just beyond the camera. In fact, in many steel-works, to avoid the differences between the colors as seen by daylight and lamplight, *all* comparisons are made in a dark room, using a box or camera and an oil-lamp. Two holes in the top of the camera just inside the ground-glass screen receive the carbon tubes, the ends of which rest on a piece of black cloth on the bottom of the camera inside. Another piece of black cloth fastened across the top of the camera, covering the top of the ground-glass slide, and having holes just large enough to admit the tubes, excludes all light except that at the back of the tubes. A north light is much the best for comparing the colors, and, as to most observers the left-hand tube appears a little the darker, the color will be exactly matched when, the tubes being

FIG. 89.



reversed, the left-hand tube still appears a little the darker of the two.

Instead of diluting the solutions to agree with a standard, as above described, some chemists use a rack of permanent standards, as suggested by Britton.* The principal difficulty heretofore attending the use of permanent standards has been the impossibility of preventing their fading; but, according to Eggertz,† this is now entirely overcome by the method of preparing them suggested by Prof. F. L. Ekman. The details are as follows. Dissolve 3 grammes of neutral ferric chloride in 100 c.c. water containing 1.5 c.c. hydrochloric acid; dissolve 2.1 grammes cupric chloride in 100 c.c. water containing .5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, dissolve 2.1 grammes cobaltic chloride in 100 c c. water containing 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, using the neutral salts in all cases. These solutions will contain about .01 gramme of the metal to the c.c., and by adding to 8 c.c. of the iron solution 6 c.c. of the cobalt solution, 3 c.c. of the copper solution, and 5 c.c. water containing .5 per cent. hydrochloric acid, a liquid is obtained which has a color approximating that obtained by dissolving .2 gramme of steel, containing 1 per cent. of carbon, in nitric acid, and diluting to 10 c.c., or .1 per cent. carbon to the c.c. Prepare a number of test-tubes of the size described on page 176, but in this case it is essential that they should be of exactly the same diameter, and that the glass should be as nearly colorless as possible. By successive dilutions with water containing .5 per cent. hydrochloric acid, of the normal solution prepared as above, make solutions of about the proper strength for the series required.

The variations should be about .02 per cent. between the different tubes of the series, corresponding to, say, the even hundredths. There should be about 10 c.c. of solution in each tube, and then the color of each should be compared with a standard steel, diluted to the exact strength required in the permanent standard. For example, if the standard steel contains .4 per cent. carbon, and you wish to get the exact color for the .32 per cent. carbon tube in the permanent series, dissolve .2

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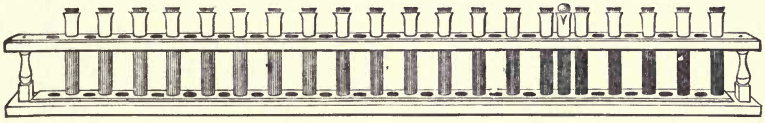
* Chem. News, xxii. 101. † Ibid., xliv. 173.

gramme of the standard exactly as directed on page 178, pour the solution into a carbon tube, and dilute it in accordance with the formula, carbon required : carbon of standard :: 10 c.c. : the number of c.c. required, or, in this case, 32 : 40 :: 10 c.c. : 12.5 c.c. Therefore dilute the solution in the carbon tube to 12.5 c.c., pour 10 c.c. into a test-tube exactly like those used for the permanent standards, and compare it with the .32 per cent. carbon tube. If the color of the permanent solution is not exactly the same, correct it by adding portions of the solutions of the iron, cobalt, or copper salts, or water containing .5 per cent. hydrochloric acid. The iron salt or hydrochloric acid alone gives a yellowish, the cobalt salt a brownish, and the copper salt a greenish, tone to the solution. The standards may now be arranged in a rack, as shown in Fig. 90. The colors of the permanent standards once

FIG. 90.



fixed, the samples to be analyzed are treated exactly as described on page 178, the test-tubes used being precisely like those containing the permanent standards, and each one carefully graduated to contain 10 c.c. When the samples (.2 gramme each) are dissolved and cooled, dilute each solution in turn with cold water to 10 c.c., mix thoroughly, and compare it with the standards in the rack, by which means the carbon may be estimated to the nearest hundredth of a per cent.

In testing white cast iron, use only .05 gramme, dissolve in 7 c.c. nitric acid, dilute the standard to some convenient amount approximating 20 c.c., and compare as quickly as possible to avoid the precipitation of carbonaceous matter, which is apt to occur under these circumstances. The graphite in ordinary gray pig-iron, and sometimes even in steels, renders filtration necessary. In this case add to the cold acid solution one-half of its volume of water, filter through a small, dry, ashless filter into the carbon tube, wash with as little water as possible, and compare as usual.

DETERMINATION OF TITANIUM.

By Precipitation.

Only traces or very minute amounts of titanium are found in steel, but notable quantities exist in some kinds of pig-iron. As pointed out by Riley,* when pig-iron containing titanium is dissolved in hydrochloric acid a portion of the titanium goes into solution, while the remainder is found with the insoluble matter. The insoluble portion, as noticed on page 85 *et seq.*, contains phosphoric acid. It is a curious fact that as titanic acid interferes with the determination of phosphoric acid by its tendency to form upon evaporation to dryness an insoluble phospho-titanate, so phosphoric acid interferes with the determination of titanic acid by partially preventing the precipitation of titanic acid from its boiling sulphuric acid solution. The best method, therefore, for the determination of titanium is to proceed exactly as for the determination of phosphorus when titanium is present, as directed on page 85 *et seq.*, until the residue from the aqueous solution of the sodium carbonate fusion is obtained. Dry this residue, transfer it to a large platinum crucible, preferably the one in which the sodium carbonate fusion was made, burn the filter, add its ash to the residue, and fuse the whole with fifteen or twenty times its weight of potassium bisulphate. In fusing with potassium bisulphate it is necessary to begin with a very low heat, and to raise the temperature very slowly and carefully to a low red heat, as the mixture has a strong tendency to boil over the top of the crucible whenever the temperature is increased too rapidly. When the lid of the crucible is raised, fumes of sulphuric anhydride should come off, and the fusion should be kept at this point for several hours, or until it is quite clear and the whole of the ferric oxide has been dissolved. Allow the fused mass to cool, add to it from 10 c.c. to 20 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid, and heat until it is perfectly liquid. When cold it will remain liquid. Pour it carefully into 400 c.c. of cold water in a 600 c.c. beaker. Add a little hydrochloric acid if necessary and 50 c.c. of strong sulphurous acid, or 5 c.c. of ammonium bisulphite. Filter

* Jour. Chem. Soc., xvi. 387.

into an 800 c.c. beaker, add ammonia until a permanent precipitate forms, redissolve with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, add a filtered solution of 20 grammes of sodium acetate and one-sixth the volume of the solution of acetic acid (1.04 sp. gr.), and heat to boiling. The titanic acid is precipitated almost immediately in a flocculent condition and quite free from iron. Boil for a few minutes, allow the titanic acid to settle, filter, wash with hot water containing a little acetic acid, dry, ignite, and weigh as titanic acid, which contains 60 per cent. titanium. Should the precipitate contain any appreciable amount of ferric oxide, fuse with bisulphate and reprecipitate in the same way.

By Volatilization.

Drown * suggested the method of determining titanium by volatilizing it in a current of chlorine gas. The details, with some modifications, are as follows. Treat the sample exactly as directed for the determination of silicon, *by volatilization in a current of chlorine gas*, page 73 *et seq.*

To the filtrate from the silica (page 77) add a slight excess of ammonia, acidulate with acetic acid, boil, filter, wash, and ignite the precipitate. As this precipitate may contain a little ferric oxide (carried over mechanically as ferric chloride), phosphoric acid, tungstic acid, etc., fuse it with a little sodium carbonate, dissolve the fused mass in hot water, filter, wash, dry, and ignite the residue, which will contain all the titanic acid as sodium titanate, and any iron that may have been present as ferric oxide. The filtrate will contain the phosphoric acid, etc. Fuse the ignited residue with a little potassium bisulphate, treat it in the crucible with strong sulphuric acid, as directed on page 184, and determine the titanic acid in the manner there described.

DETERMINATION OF COPPER.

For the determination of copper the precipitate by hydrogen sulphide, obtained in the determination of phosphorus (page 82), may be used, but in this case the precipitate must be filtered off before getting rid of

* Trans. Inst. Min. Engineers, viii. 508.

the excess of hydrogen sulphide, after which, if any additional precipitate of arsenious sulphide is thrown down in the filtrate, it must be filtered off before proceeding with the determination of phosphorus. Dry and ignite the filter with the precipitate of copper sulphide, etc., in a porcelain crucible, burn off all the carbon from the paper, allow the crucible to cool, and digest the precipitate at a gentle heat with nitric acid and a few drops of sulphuric acid, keeping the crucible covered with a small watch-glass. When the copper sulphide is entirely dissolved, remove the watch-glass and evaporate the solution until all the nitric acid is expelled and fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. Allow it to cool, add enough water to dissolve all the cupric sulphate, heating gently, if necessary, and wash the solution into a platinum crucible. Place the crucible in the little brass holder (Fig. 91),

FIG. 91.

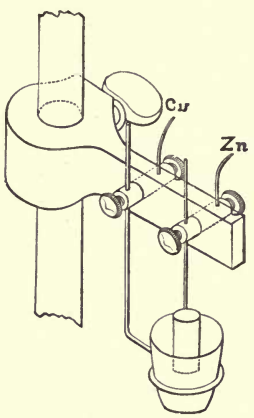
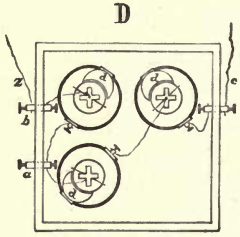


FIG. 92.



attach the weighed platinum cylinder, and connect the battery. The battery should consist of three Daniell's two-quart cells, arranged as shown in Fig. 92. The connectors *a*, *b* pass through the sides of the box (which should be covered), and, the jars being connected as shown in the sketch, by simply changing the wire from *a* to *b*, three cells are brought into action instead of two. For depositing the small amount of copper found in iron or steel, two cells furnish a sufficiently strong current. The platinum cylinder should weigh about 3 or 4 grammes;

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it is lowered into the liquid until it is just clear of the bottom of the crucible, and the crucible is covered with two small pieces of glass to prevent the liquid being carried off by the escaping gas. It is much neater to deposit the copper on the cylinder than in the crucible, as it weighs less, is quite as easy to wash and dry, and there is no danger of any silica or dirt from the solution being covered by the deposited copper. When the copper is all deposited, usually in two or three hours, remove the cylinder, wash it with cold water, then with alcohol, dry at 100° C., cool, and weigh. The increase of weight is copper.

In pig-irons containing titanium it is necessary to use a separate portion for the determination of copper. In steels, the solution in the flask from the determination of sulphur (page 60) may be used for the determination of copper. In this case, wash the contents of the flask into an 800 c.c. beaker, nearly neutralize with ammonia, add 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, heat the solution to boiling, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution for fifteen or twenty minutes, filter, wash with hot water, and treat the precipitate as directed above. In the case of pig-irons, however, it is best to dissolve in aqua regia, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, filter, reduce the iron in the filtrate with ammonium bisulphite, boil off the excess of sulphurous acid, and precipitate by hydrogen sulphide. Instead of using hydrogen sulphide, the copper may be precipitated in a sulphuric acid solution by sodium hyposulphite. Dissolve 5 grammes of the sample in a mixture of 150 c.c. water and 12 c.c. strong sulphuric acid. Dilute to about 500 c.c. with hot water, heat to boiling, and add 3 grammes of sodium hyposulphite dissolved in 10 c.c. hot water. Boil for a few minutes, allow the precipitate to settle, filter, and wash with hot water. Dry the precipitate, which, besides the cupric sulphide, may consist of graphite, silica, etc.; transfer it to a small beaker, burn the filter, and add the ash to the main portion. Digest the whole with aqua regia, dilute with hot water, filter, wash, add a few drops of sulphuric acid, and evaporate until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off, cool, dissolve in water, transfer to the platinum crucible, and determine the copper by the battery as directed above.

Instead of determining the copper by electrolysis, it may be determined

as cuprous sulphide, Cu_2S, or as oxide, CuO. To determine it as cuprous sulphide, dilute the sulphate obtained by any of the methods mentioned above with water to about 50 c.c., add an excess of ammonia, filter from ferric oxide, etc., wash with ammoniacal water, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the cold solution. Filter, wash with hydrogen sulphide water, dry the filter and precipitate, transfer the latter to a small porcelain crucible, burn the filter, and add its ash to the precipitate. Add to the precipitate in the crucible about twice its volume of flowers of sulphur and ignite it in a current of hydrogen, as directed for the determination of manganese as MnS, page 112. Weigh as cuprous sulphide, which contains 79.82 per cent. copper.

Instead of igniting the precipitate obtained above as cuprous sulphide, the copper may be determined as oxide, as follows. Dissolve the sulphide in aqua regia in a small porcelain dish, evaporate nearly dry, dilute with hot water, heat to boiling, and add a slight excess of a dilute solution of caustic soda or potash. Filter on a small ashless filter, wash with hot water, dry, transfer the precipitate to a platinum crucible, burn the filter and add its ash to the precipitate, moisten the whole with nitric acid, and heat very gently at first, but increase the heat slowly to redness. Cool, and weigh as copper oxide, which contains 79.85 per cent. copper.

DETERMINATION OF NICKEL AND COBALT.

The Acetate Method.

Treat 3 grammes of the drillings exactly as directed for the determination of manganese by the acetate method (page 108 *et seq.*). The precipitate by hydrogen sulphide (page 110) will contain all the nickel and cobalt and a portion of the copper contained in the sample. Filter this precipitate on a small washed filter, wash with hydrogen sulphide water containing a little free acetic acid, dry and ignite the filter and precipitate, and transfer them to a small beaker. Dissolve in hydrochloric acid with a few drops of nitric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in from 10 to 20 drops of hydrochloric acid, dilute with hot water to about 50 c.c., heat the solution to

boiling, and pass a stream of hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution to precipitate any copper that may be present. Filter, wash with hot water, evaporate the filtrate to dryness, moisten the dry mass with 4 or 5 drops of hydrochloric acid, add 20 or 30 drops of cold water and then 2 or 3 grammes of potassium nitrite (KNO_2) * dissolved in the least possible amount of water and acidulated with acetic acid. The presence of cobalt is shown by the formation of a bright yellow precipitate of potassium-cobalt nitrite, $(KNO_2)_6Co_2(NO_2)_6 + Aq$. Stir the solution, and allow it to stand twenty-four hours, with occasional stirring. Filter on a small ashless filter, wash with water containing potassium acetate and a little free acetic acid, remove the filtrate which contains the nickel, and wash the precipitate and filter free from potassium acetate with alcohol. Ignite the filter and precipitate carefully in a porcelain crucible, being careful not to raise the temperature high enough to fuse the precipitate; transfer to a very small beaker, and digest in hydrochloric acid and a little potassium chlorate. Evaporate to dryness, redissolve in from 3 to 5 drops of hydrochloric acid, dilute with cold water, add about 1 gramme of sodium acetate, and boil for an hour to precipitate the small amount of ferric oxide and alumina that is always present. Filter, to the filtrate add excess of ammonia and ammonium sulphydrate, and heat to boiling. As soon as the precipitate of cobalt sulphide has settled, filter, wash with water containing a little ammonium sulphydrate, dry, and ignite the precipitate and filter in a platinum crucible. When all the carbon is burned, allow the crucible to cool, pour in a little nitric acid, heat carefully, and finally evaporate to dryness. Add a few drops of sulphuric acid, digest until the sulphide and oxide are changed to cobalt sulphate, drive off the excess of sulphuric acid, heat finally to dull redness for a few moments, cool, and weigh as cobalt sulphate, $CoSO_4$, which contains 38.05 per cent. of cobalt. Heat the filtrate from the potassium-cobalt nitrite to boiling, add a slight excess of caustic potash, boil for a few minutes, filter, and wash the precipitate of nickel oxide with hot water. Dissolve the precipitate on the filter with hydrochloric acid, allow the solution to run back into the beaker in which

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* See page 47.

the nickel oxide was precipitated, and wash the filter with hot water. Evaporate the solution to dryness, redissolve in from 3 to 5 drops of hydrochloric acid, dilute with cold water to about 50 c.c., add 1 gramme of sodium acetate, boil for an hour, filter off any ferric oxide and alumina, and wash with hot water. To the filtrate add an excess of ammonium sulphydrate (a brown color shows the presence of nickel), acidulate with acetic acid, heat to boiling, and pass a current of hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution until the precipitated sulphur and nickel sulphide agglomerate. Filter, wash with hydrogen sulphide water, dry, and ignite the filter and precipitate. Allow the crucible to cool, add a little ammonium carbonate to the precipitate, heat to dull redness, and volatilize any sulphuric acid that may have been formed as ammonium sulphate, cool, and weigh as nickel sulphide or nickel oxide, which contains 78.55 per cent. of nickel. The nickel and cobalt may also be weighed in the metallic condition by precipitating them by the battery from the ammoniacal solutions of the sulphates. If it is not desired to separate them, evaporate the filtrate from the precipitated copper sulphide with an excess of sulphuric acid until the hydrochloric acid is driven off and fumes of sulphuric anhydride appear, allow the beaker to cool, add about 5 c.c. water, then an excess of ammonia, filter if necessary, transfer to a platinum crucible, and precipitate on a small cylinder (Fig. 91, page 186) in a strongly ammoniacal solution, using three cells of the battery. Wash the cylinder with water, then with alcohol, dry at 100° C., and weigh as nickel and cobalt. To determine the nickel and cobalt separately, precipitate the cobalt as potassium-cobalt nitrite, treat the ignited cobalt precipitate with an excess of sulphuric acid, heat until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off, dilute a little, make the solution strongly ammoniacal, and precipitate the cobalt as above directed. Precipitate the nickel oxide, in the filtrate from the cobalt, by caustic potash solution, filter, wash, dissolve on the filter in hydrochloric acid, evaporate the solution with sulphuric acid, add excess of ammonia, and precipitate the nickel by the battery as above.

For the analysis of nickel steel, which contains from 2 to 3 per cent. of nickel, use 1 gramme of the sample, and, after obtaining the precipi-

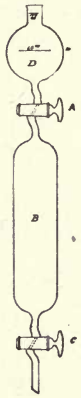
tate of nickel sulphide as described above, burn it with the filter in a porcelain crucible, allow it to cool, add a little pure powdered sulphur, and ignite in a stream of hydrogen gas as described on page 112. Weigh as nickel sulphide.

The Ether Method.

This method of separation, due to J. W. Rothe,* is founded on the fact that ether will take from an aqueous hydrochloric acid solution nearly all the ferric chloride, leaving in the solution the chlorides of nickel, cobalt, aluminum, chromium, manganese, and copper. The method was used first in this country by Mr. George H. Chase, of the Midvale Steel Company, and is given in considerable detail by Prof. Ad. Carnot in his "Methodes d'Analyse des Fontes, des Fers, et des Aciers," 1895, p. 123 *et seq.*

Dissolve from 2† to 5 grammes of the drillings in a 250 c.c. beaker in aqua regia. Evaporate to dryness to render silica insoluble, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, dilute slightly, filter, and evaporate the filtrate to syrupy consistency. The success of the separation depends largely upon the specific gravity of the solution, as a solution of the density 1.100 to 1.105 saturated with ether retains the smallest amount of ferric chloride. The tube shown in Fig. 93, suggested by Carnot, is admirably adapted for the treatment with ether. It consists of a bulb, B, of 200 c.c. capacity, about 20 cm. (8 inches) high and 3.5 cm. (1.5 inches) wide, with a tube at either end 3 mm. (⅛ inch) internal diameter, carrying the stopcocks A and C. The upper one connects with a bulb, D, of 100 c.c. capacity, with a mark at *m* to show when the bulb contains 30 c.c.

FIG. 93.



Close both stopcocks, pour a few drops of ether into the upper bulb, open A to allow the ether to run into B. Close A, warm the bulb B with the hand, and open and close C. This will create a partial vacuum in B. Transfer the solution from the beaker to the bulb D, wash-

* Mittheilungen aus den Königlich Tech. Versuchsanstatten zu Berlin, 1892, Part iii.

† For nickel steel containing from 2 per cent. to 3 per cent. of nickel 2 grammes are sufficient.

ing it out of the beaker with hydrochloric acid of 1.1 sp. gr. and filling D to the mark *m*. This strength of hydrochloric acid gives the solution, after the separation of the ferric chloride by ether, a sp. gr. of 1.100. Stand the tube in a vessel of cold water, open A and allow the solution to run into B. Close A and fill the bulb D with ether. Allow the ether to flow slowly into B so that it forms a separate layer over the hydrochloric acid solution. Mix the two liquids gradually by giving the apparatus a circular motion, replacing it in the cold water from time to time so as to avoid a rise in the temperature, which would cause a reduction by the ether of some of the ferric chloride. Finally close A, shake the tube well, open A to relieve the pressure, return the tube to the water, and allow it to stand some minutes to give the liquids the opportunity to separate. The upper stratum is the ethereal solution of the ferric chloride and the lower the hydrochloric acid solution of the other metals, with usually about 1 per cent. of the ferric chloride. Open the stopcock C, allow the lower solution to run into a small beaker, close C, and wash the end of the tube with a little water. Introduce about 10 c.c. of hydrochloric acid (1.1 sp. gr.) into the bulb D, allow it to run into B, close A, shake the apparatus and allow it to stand for a few minutes. Allow the lower liquid to run into the beaker, which will now contain all the nickel, cobalt, etc., that were in the steel.* One separation with ether is generally sufficient, but if it is considered desirable to remove still more of the iron, run the solution and washings into the bulb of another tube like the one described instead of into a beaker, and repeat the treatment with ether.

Heat the solution in the beaker to drive off the ether dissolved in it, add bromine or a little hydrogen peroxide and excess of ammonia, boil, and filter. Redissolve the precipitate and repeat the operation, adding the two filtrates together. The filtrates contain all the nickel, cobalt, and copper, while the insoluble matter contains, be-

* To recover the ether, dilute it in the tube with an equal volume of water, shake the tube and allow it to stand. The ether rises to the top and the aqueous ferric chloride solution remains below. Draw off the latter and distil the ether from caustic lime.

sides ferric hydrate, any alumina and chromium sesquioxide that may have been in the steel. Acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, adding about 5 per cent. of its volume in excess, and precipitate the copper with hydrogen sulphide. Filter and wash. To the filtrate add an excess of ammonia, then a few c.c. of ammonium sulphydrate, acidulate with acetic acid, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution. Filter and wash the precipitate of sulphur and nickel and cobalt sulphides. Test the filtrate by adding an excess of ammonia, and if it darkens repeat the precipitation with ammonium sulphydrate, acetic acid, and hydrogen sulphide. In the case of nickel steel, cobalt is generally disregarded, and the precipitate is ignited and weighed after treatment with ammonium carbonate as nickel oxide, NiO.

Or, heat the liquid separated from the ethereal solution to drive off the ether, dilute slightly, pass hydrogen sulphide to precipitate the copper, filter, and wash. Heat the filtrate to drive off the hydrogen sulphide, add 10 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid and a little nitric acid, and evaporate until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. Cool, dilute to 50 c.c., add ammonia in excess, boil, and filter. Redissolve the precipitate in dilute sulphuric acid, reprecipitate, and filter. Add the filtrates together and precipitate on the battery as metallic nickel.

To separate the nickel and cobalt, dissolve the ignited precipitate of the sulphide obtained above in hydrochloric acid with a little nitric acid, evaporate to very small bulk, and separate with potassium nitrite as described on page 189.

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM.

All chrome steels are soluble in hydrochloric acid or in aqua regia, leaving occasionally a residue which may contain small amounts of chromium. For gravimetric determinations a preliminary separation of the greater part of the iron is practically a necessity, and Rothe's method for accomplishing this is unequalled both for accuracy and speed.

The Ether Method.

Treat from 1 to 5 grammes of the steel exactly as described for the determination of nickel by the ether method (page 191), until the precipitate by ammonia, consisting of ferric oxide, chromium sesquioxide, and manganese oxide, is obtained. In the absence of nickel a single precipitation is sufficient; in the event of its being present, two or even three precipitations may be necessary, and of course the chromium and nickel may be determined at the same time. Dry the precipitate, ignite and fuse it with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate. Extract the fused mass with water, filter, and wash with water containing a little sodium carbonate. The filtrate contains the chromium as sodium chromate, part of the alumina, and part of the manganese. The insoluble matter consists of ferric oxide and the rest of the alumina and manganese. Evaporate the filtrate with an excess of ammonium nitrate, adding ammonia from time to time until the solution becomes syrupy. Dilute, and filter from the alumina and manganese. To the filtrate, after boiling off the ammonia, add an excess of sulphurous acid, boil until it no longer smells of sulphurous acid, add ammonia in excess, boil, filter, and wash the precipitate of chromium sesquioxide. Dissolve in a little hydrochloric acid, reprecipitate with ammonia, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as chromium sesquioxide, which contains 68.48 per cent. of chromium.

The Volumetric Method.

Galbraith* has suggested a rapid method for the determination of chromium when it is present in appreciable amounts, as in chrome steel or chrome pig-iron. Dissolve from 1 to 3 grammes of the sample in dilute sulphuric acid (1 part sulphuric acid and 6 parts water), add potassium permanganate in crystals until the iron is all oxidized and the liquid is quite red in color, then add as much more to oxidize the chromium to chromic acid. Heat the solution to boiling, and boil until the permanganate is all decomposed and there remains a precipitate of manganese

* Chem. News, xxxv. 151.

oxide. Filter, wash with hot water, to the filtrate add a measured volume of standardized ferrous sulphate, and determine the excess of ferrous sulphate by a standard solution of permanganate. From the amount of ferrous sulphate oxidized by the chromic acid calculate the amount of chromium. The reaction is $6FeSO_4 + 2CrO_3 + 6H_2SO_4 = 3Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + Cr_2(SO_4)_3 + 6H_2O$, or 1 equivalent of chromic acid will oxidize 3 equivalents of ferrous sulphate to ferric sulphate. Therefore, if the value of the permanganate is known in metallic iron, and consequently the value of the ferrous sulphate (it being standardized by the permanganate) in metallic iron, the amount of chromium is calculated as follows: 3 equiv. Iron = 168 : 1 equiv. Chromium = 52.14 : : the value of the ferrous sulphate oxidized by the chromic acid in iron : its value in chromium; or multiply the value of the ferrous sulphate oxidized, in iron, by $\frac{52.14}{168} = .3103$. The titration is effected in the manner directed for the determination of iron in iron ores.

Barba's Modifications.

Barba * has suggested several modifications which decidedly improve the method. To avoid the large precipitate of manganese dioxide, he uses nitric acid to oxidize the iron, having found that even a considerable excess of this reagent does not affect the subsequent reactions. He uses, most successfully, ammonia to destroy the excess of potassium permanganate. The method is as follows:

Dissolve 1.25 grammes steel in 20 c.c. sulphuric acid (1.2 sp. gr.). When solution is complete, add nitric acid drop by drop until the iron is oxidized; 5 c.c. of nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) is generally sufficient.

Boil to remove nitrous fumes, and add hot water to bring the volume to 150 c.c.; add from a pipette 5 c.c. of a saturated solution of potassium permanganate and boil briskly for from fifteen to twenty minutes; remove from the plate, wash down the sides of the beaker to remove all permanganate, and add 25 c.c. strong ammonia down the side of the beaker; shake well, and replace on the cooler part of the plate to avoid

* The Iron Age, lii. 153.

"bumping," of which there is some danger if the heat be raised too rapidly. Shake occasionally and digest for about fifteen minutes, or until the permanganate is all decomposed, then add cautiously 20 c.c. dilute sulphuric acid (1.58 sp. gr.) and bring gently to boiling. Cool the solution and pour into a graduated 250 c.c. flask. Make up to mark with cold water, and mix well by pouring back and forth into a dry beaker a few times. Allow the precipitate to settle, and filter through superposed funnels, with close, hard, dry filters, into a dry beaker; measure off 200 c.c. (equal to 1 gramme sample) of the clear filtrate, titrate by adding a known excess of ferrous sulphate, and determine the excess by standard permanganate.

DETERMINATION OF ALUMINUM.

Stead's Method.*

Weigh 6, 12, or 24 grammes steel, place in a 600 c.c. beaker, cover with a watch-glass, dissolve in hydrochloric acid (strong), evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, filter into a 1000 c.c. beaker through an ashless filter, nearly neutralize the filtrate with dilute ammonia, and boil. The filtrate should measure 500 or 600 c.c. Add to the solution 1 or 2 c.c. of saturated solution of ammonium phosphate, and then a large excess of sodium hyposulphite, boil till all sulphurous acid has passed off (half an hour's boiling should be sufficient); just before filtering add 20 c.c. of a saturated solution of ammonium acetate, stir to mix, and filter through an ashless filter, wash precipitate and filter five or six times, add to the beaker in which the precipitate had been formed 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, heat to boiling, remove the vessel containing the filtrate, and instead of it place under the funnel a platinum dish, and pour over the filter the boiling acid. Rinse out the beaker and wash all soluble matter on the filter with a fine jet, evaporate the solution to dryness in the platinum dish, and heat to a temperature of 300° or 400° F. on the hot plate to drive off excess of acid.

* Prepared by Mr. J. E. Stead, of Middlesboro', England, for this volume.

Add from 2 to 5 grammes pure sodium hydrate made from sodium free from aluminum and about 2 c.c. water. Heat gently over a rose-burner for ten minutes, maintaining the mass in a fluid state all the time. Cool and add water, and boil till solution is complete. Make the bulk of the solution to 300 c.c. and note the temperature exactly. Shake well and filter through an ashless filter. Measure off 250 c.c. at the original temperature, equal to 5, 10, or 20 grammes steel. If any yellow tint is observable chromium may be present. In this case the aluminum phosphate must be neutralized with hydrochloric acid and precipitated by ammonium carbonate, taking care to boil the solution well to free from excess of ammonia before filtering. Filter through an ashless filter, dry, burn, and weigh, dissolve the precipitate in hydrochloric acid and determine phosphoric acid in it, and deduct the weight found from the weight of the original precipitate. If chromium is absent, neutralize the solution with hydrochloric acid as before described, boil and add excess of sodium hyposulphite, and boil for half an hour, filter off the precipitate, burn, and weigh as pure aluminum phosphate, which contains 22.18 per cent. of aluminum.

Carnot's Method.*

M. Carnot states that the method is very similar to that published by Mr. J. E. Stead in the *Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry*, 1889, page 965, but that he had used and taught it in the École des Mines for eight years. It is founded on the reaction that he pointed out in 1881, that aluminum is precipitated as the neutral phosphate from a boiling solution faintly acid with acetic acid. The precipitation succeeds equally well when the solution contains iron, if the ferric salt has been previously reduced to ferrous by sodium hyposulphite.

Treat 10 grammes of the iron or steel in a platinum dish covered with a piece of platinum-foil with hydrochloric acid, and when solution is complete, dilute and filter into a flask, washing the carbon, silica, etc., on the filter thoroughly with distilled water. Neutralize the solution with ammonia and sodium carbonate, but see that no permanent precipi-

* A. Carnot, Moniteur Scientifique, 1891, p. 14.

tate is formed, then add a little sodium hyposulphite, and, when the liquid—at first violet—becomes colorless, 2 or 3 c.c. of a saturated solution of sodium phosphate and 5 or 6 grammes of sodium acetate dissolved in a little water. Boil the solution about three-quarters of an hour, or until it no longer smells of sulphurous acid. Filter, and wash the precipitate of aluminum phosphate, mixed with a little silica and ferric phosphate, with boiling water. Treat the precipitate on the filter with hot dilute hydrochloric acid, allow the solution to run into a platinum dish, evaporate to dryness, and heat at 100° C. for an hour to render the silica insoluble. Dissolve in hot dilute hydrochloric acid, filter from the silica, dilute to about 100 c.c. with cold water, neutralize as before, add a little hyposulphite in the cold, then a mixture of 2 grammes of sodium hyposulphite and 2 grammes of sodium acetate, boil for one-half hour, wash, and weigh as aluminum phosphate, which contains 22.18 per cent. of aluminum.

Ether Method.

Treat 5 grammes of steel as described for the determination of nickel and evaporate the hydrochloric acid solution, which may contain nickel, chromium, copper, etc., until the ether is driven off, add a few drops of nitric acid or bromine to oxidize the iron, and precipitate by ammonia. Boil for a few minutes, filter, and wash; redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and reprecipitate, filter, and wash with boiling water. The precipitate will contain only iron, aluminum, and chromium. When chromium is absent, dissolve the precipitate in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, dissolve in a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter, and dilute with cold water to 100 c.c., add 2 or 3 c.c. of sodium phosphate, and proceed as in the second precipitation of aluminum phosphate by Carnot's method.

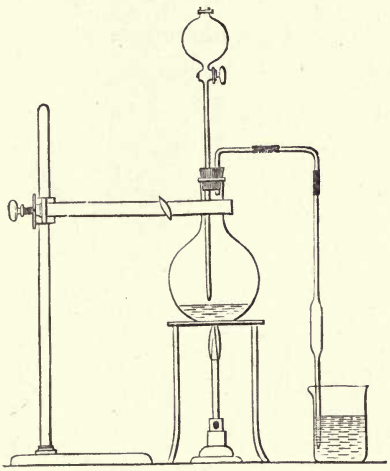
When chromium is present, fuse the precipitate of ferric oxide, alumina, and chromic oxide with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate, dissolve in water, add ammonium nitrate, boil well, and filter. The chromic acid will be in the filtrate and the ferric oxide and alumina will be insoluble. Dissolve in hydrochloric acid and proceed as when chromium is absent.

DETERMINATION OF ARSENIC.

By Distillation.

Lundin * has suggested the following method of determining arsenic, which gives very good results. Dissolve 10 grammes of drillings in a large beaker in nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), transfer the solution to a platinum or porcelain dish, add 25 c.c. sulphuric acid, and evaporate until copious fumes of sulphuric acid are given off. Cool the dish, add 50 c.c. of water, and evaporate again until the excess of sulphuric acid is driven off, and the ferric sulphate is so dry that it can readily be transferred to a flask of about 500 c.c. capacity. Add to the mass in the flask 15 grammes finely powdered ferrous sulphate, pour in 150 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid, and close the flask with a stopper carrying a tube bent twice at right angles and connected by a rubber tube with a 50 c.c. pipette, the point of which dips about ½ inch (12 mm.) into 300 c.c. of water in a beaker, as shown in Fig. 94. Heat the liquid in the flask gradually until it boils, and continue the distillation until the wide part of the pipette becomes heated. The arsenic acid in the solution is reduced by the ferrous sulphate, and, in the strong hydrochloric acid solution, is distilled over as arsenious chloride. Remove the light, disconnect the pipette, heat the solution in the beaker to about 70° C., and pass a rapid current of hydrogen sulphide through it until it is completely saturated. Remove the excess of hydrogen sulphide by a current of carbonic acid, and when the solution smells very faintly of hydrogen sulphide, filter off the yellow precipitate of arsenious sulphide on a Gooch

FIG. 94.



* Jern-Kontorets Annaler, 1883, p. 360; Chem. News, li. 115.

crucible or on a counterpoised filter,* wash with water, then with alcohol, then with pure carbon disulphide, dry at 100° C., and weigh as arsenious sulphide, which contains 60.93 per cent. of arsenic.

Or, after filtering the precipitate on the felt in a Gooch crucible, transfer the precipitate and felt to a small beaker, add a little fuming nitric acid, and, when action has nearly ceased, heat gently until the sulphur is dissolved, dilute, filter, and evaporate to about 10 c.c. Add 5 c.c. of magnesia-mixture and then ammonia equal to one-half the volume of the solution. Stir the solution vigorously from time to time, keeping it cool by immersing the beaker in ice-water, and allow it to stand twelve hours. Filter on a Gooch crucible, wash the precipitate of ammonium-magnesium arsenate with the ammonia-water containing ammonium nitrate, used for washing the ammonium-magnesium phosphate (page 85), dry at 103° C. for half an hour, then increase the heat very gradually to redness, and ignite strongly for a few minutes. Weigh as magnesium arsenate, which contains 48.30 per cent. of arsenic.

DETERMINATION OF TIN.

Tin is a most unusual constituent of steel or iron, but has been found in the former in cases where scrap from tinned iron, from which the tin has been removed by a chemical process, has been melted in the open-hearth furnace as a portion of the charge. Dissolve 10 grammes of the sample in hydrochloric acid, dilute to 600 c.c., and saturate the solution with hydrogen sulphide. Allow it to stand for several hours, filter, and wash with water containing hydrogen sulphide. Treat the precipitate on the filter with ammonium sulphydrate, allowing the solution and washings to run into a 250 c.c. beaker. Acidulate with acetic acid, allow to stand in a warm place for several hours, filter, and wash with water containing ammonium acetate made slightly acid with acetic acid. Dry the precipitate and filter, transfer the precipitate to a weighed porcelain crucible, burn

* See page 28.

the filter and add its ash to the precipitate, add a little sulphur, and ignite in a current of hydrogen sulphide, as directed for the determination of manganese as sulphide (page 112). Any arsenic present will be volatilized, but it is not possible to weigh the tin as sulphide, as its composition is not constant. Heat the crucible carefully, and roast the precipitate with access of air, heat it strongly two or three times with ammonium carbonate to volatilize any sulphuric acid that may have been formed, cool, and weigh as stannic oxide, which contains 78.81 per cent. of tin.

DETERMINATION OF TUNGSTEN.

Dissolve from 1 to 10 grammes of the drillings in nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), evaporate to dryness in the air-bath, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, dilute slightly, and boil for some time. The tungstic acid is deposited as a yellowish powder. Dilute, filter, wash with hot water containing a little hydrochloric acid, and finally with alcohol and water. The precipitate consists of tungstic acid mixed with more or less silica, graphite, and perhaps a little ferric oxide, titanic acid, etc. Dry and ignite the filter and precipitate, and burn off the carbon. Allow the crucible to cool, moisten the precipitate with water, add a little sulphuric acid and an excess of hydrofluoric acid. Evaporate to dryness under a hood, and ignite to drive off the sulphuric acid. Fuse the residue with five times its weight of sodium carbonate, allow it to cool, dissolve in water, filter from any insoluble matter, and wash with water containing a little sodium carbonate. The filtrate contains all the tungsten, as sodium tungstate. Nearly neutralize with nitric acid, and boil off the carbonic acid, allow the solution to cool slightly, and add a faint but distinct excess of nitric acid. Add an excess of mercurous nitrate,* and then mercuric oxide diffused in water,* until the free acid is all neutralized. The tungsten is all precipitated as mercurous tungstate, and can be washed perfectly free from

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* See page 56.

sodium salts with hot water. Allow the precipitate to settle, filter on an ashless filter, wash with hot water, and dry the filter and precipitate. Separate the precipitate from the filter, burn the filter in a platinum crucible, add the precipitate, and heat it under a hood with a good draft, increasing the heat gradually to a bright red. The mercury volatilizes, and there remains only tungstic acid. Cool, and weigh as tungstic acid, which contains 79.31 per cent. of tungsten.

Rapid Method for Tungsten.

A rapid method for the determination of tungsten in high tungsten steels and one that gives results sufficiently accurate for ordinary work is as follows:

Treat 1 gramme of the steel in a No. 3 Griffin's beaker with 25 c.c. of aqua regia, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in 10 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid, add 1 or 2 c.c. strong nitric acid, heat for a few minutes, dilute with hot water to 100 c.c., and boil for ten minutes. Filter, wash with water containing a little hydrochloric acid, and ignite. Treat the precipitate in the crucible with a few drops of sulphuric acid and some hydrofluoric acid, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. Fuse the precipitate with a little sodium carbonate, dissolve in hot water, filter off the ferric oxide, wash it well with hot water, return it to the crucible, ignite, and weigh. The difference between the two weights is tungstic acid.

DETERMINATION OF VANADIUM.

Vanadium is occasionally found in pig-iron, and may be determined with great accuracy by the following method. Treat 5 grammes of the drillings with 50 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) in a No. 4 beaker. When all action has ceased, transfer the liquid to a porcelain dish, evaporate to dryness, and heat at a gradually increasing temperature over a Bunsen burner until the nitrates are nearly all decomposed

and the mass separates easily from the bottom and sides of the dish. Transfer the cooled mass to a porcelain or agate mortar, and grind it thoroughly with 30 grammes of dry sodium carbonate and 3 grammes of sodium nitrate. Transfer to a large platinum crucible, and fuse well for about an hour at a high temperature. Run the fused mass well up on the sides of the crucible, allow it to cool, dissolve in hot water, and filter. Dilute the filtrate to about 600 c.c., and add nitric acid carefully to get rid of the carbonic acid. Boil off the latter, but be careful to keep the solution always slightly alkaline. Filter, and to the filtrate add a few drops of nitric acid to make it faintly acid, when the appearance of a yellowish coloration is an indication of the presence of vanadic acid. Add to the solution a few c.c. of mercurous nitrate,* and then an excess of mercuric oxide in water,* to render the solution neutral † and insure the complete precipitation of all the mercurous vanadate. With the mercurous vanadate are precipitated also all the phosphoric, chromic, tungstic, and molybdic acids as mercurous salts. Heat to boiling, filter, and wash the precipitate. Dry it, separate the paper, burn it in a platinum crucible, add the precipitate, heat carefully to expel the mercury, and finally heat to full redness. Fuse the brownish-red mass remaining in the crucible with a little sodium carbonate and a pinch of sodium nitrate, dissolve the cooled mass in water, and filter into a small beaker. Add to the solution pure ammonium chloride in excess (about 3.5 grammes to each 10 c.c. of solution), and allow it to stand for some time, stirring occasionally. Ammonium vanadate, insoluble in a saturated solution of ammonium chloride, separates out as a white powder. It is necessary to keep the solution decidedly alkaline, and a drop or two of ammonia must be added from time to time. The appearance of the faintest yellowish tint to the solution is evidence that it has become slightly acid, and this must be corrected or the result will be too low. Filter on a small ashless filter, wash first with a saturated solution of ammonium chloride containing a drop or two of ammonia, and then

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* See page 56.

† Am. Chem. Jour., v. 373.

with alcohol. Dry, ignite, moisten with a drop or two of nitric acid, ignite, and weigh as vanadic acid, which contains 56.22 per cent. of vanadium.

RAPID METHOD FOR VANADIUM.

In the absence of chromium, the method of Campagne is simple and accurate. (Comptes-Rendus, 1903, vol. cxxxvii. p. 570.)

Treat from 1 to 5 grammes by the ether method as described on page 191. The aqueous solution contains the vanadium, chromium, aluminum, manganese, copper, nickel, and cobalt, with a little iron. Evaporate this solution to dryness several times with a large excess of hydrochloric acid and reduce the vanadic acid to di-vanadyl chloride, according to the equation, $V_2O_5+6HCl=2VOCl_2+3H_2O+Cl_2$. Add 5 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid and evaporate until all the hydrochloric acid is expelled and fumes of sulphuric acid appear. By this operation di-vanadyl sulphate is formed:

$$2VOCl_2 + 2H_2SO = V_2O_2(SO_4)_2 + 4HCl.$$

Allow it to cool and dilute to 200 or 300 c.c. Warm to about 60° C. and titrate with permanganate solution.

$5V_2O_2(SO_4)_2 + 2KMnO_4 + 8H_2SO_4 = 5V_2O_2(SO_4)_3 + K_2SO_4 + 2MnSO_4 + 8H_2O$. Now, as $10FeSO_4 + 2KMnO_4 + 8H_2SO_4 = 5Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + K_2SO_4 + 2MnSO_4 + 8H_2O$, then $10V = 512$ is equal to $10Fe = 550$, or

$$\text{Vanadium} = .9143\text{Fe}.$$

The vanadium equals the value of the permanganate solution in iron multiplied by .9143.

Small amounts of ferric salts do not interfere with the reaction, but when chromium is present to the extent of 2 per cent. or over, the color of the chrome salt masks the end reaction. The color of the di-vanadyl sulphate is pale blue, while that of the chromium sulphate is green. It is, therefore, impossible to tell from the color of the solution under the conditions whether the sample contains vanadium or not, the discoloration of the permanganate solution being the only indication of its presence.

In Ferro-Vanadium.

The method is exactly the same as in steels, but it is necessary to take

only from .5 to 1 gramme of the material. In material containing over 40 per cent. of vanadium the ether separation is unnecessary.

DETERMINATION OF MOLYBDENUM.

In irons and steels containing from 1 to 10 per cent. of molybdenum treat 1 gramme of the drillings in a beaker with from 50 c.c. to 100 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), and heat on hot plate until all action has ceased, evaporate to dryness in an air-bath, take up with hydrochloric acid and heat until all ferric oxide is dissolved, evaporate to dryness, take up with dilute hydrochloric acid and filter from silica; treat this residue with sulphuric and hydrofluoric acids, weighing if silicon is to be determined, and after weighing the second time fuse the residue with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate, dissolve in water, filter, and add filtrate to the main solution. Reduce the ferric chloride with ammonium bisulphite as in the determination of phosphorus (page 81 *et seq.*), and after having driven off the sulphurous acid, pass hydrogen sulphide gas into the solution for an hour, keeping it at about 80° C. At the end of this time make the solution ammoniacal, then acidulate with hydrochloric acid and pass hydrogen sulphide again for a few minutes; stand the beaker aside and allow the precipitate to settle until the supernatant liquid is clear, filter on paper, and wash with hydrogen sulphide water. Treat the filtrate again in the same way, and if any precipitate forms, filter on another paper. Wash the precipitates from the papers into a beaker with hot ammonium sulphide solution, burn the papers in a porcelain crucible, cover the residue in the crucible with flowers of sulphur and heat gently until the sulphur is melted, then add a little sodium carbonate, cover the crucible with a lid and heat until liquid; cool, dissolve in hot water, filter, and add the filtrate to the main solution. Warm the sulphide solution for an hour or so and filter, washing with ammonium sulphide water from any sulphides that may be insoluble in the ammonium sulphide, but which should be soluble in hydrochloric acid, unless some copper has dissolved in the previous treatment; otherwise the treatment with ammonium sulphide has been insufficient.

Heat the filtrate, which should be yellow in color, almost to boiling, and acidulate carefully with hydrochloric acid; when the acid is in excess, all the molybdenum sulphide will be precipitated, but hydrogen sulphide may be passed for a short time if necessary. Heat the solution gently until all smell of hydrogen sulphide is driven off, and filter on a weighed Gooch crucible, washing with hot water. Dry at 100° or 120° C. and ignite in a stream of hydrogen, until weight is constant, by placing the bowl of a clay tobacco-pipe in the crucible and passing the hydrogen into the stem. The hydrogen gas must have replaced the air in the pipe and crucible before the heat is applied. Heat to dull redness for one hour, remove the heat, and allow to cool with the hydrogen passing. Weigh, and repeat the ignition; the second weight will rarely differ much from the first. The precipitate is molybdenum disulphide, which contains 60 per cent. of molybdenum.

In Ferro-Molybdenum.

In ferro high in molybdenum treat .2 gramme in a large platinum crucible with nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) until action has ceased; evaporate to dryness and gently ignite, fuse with from 20 to 30 grammes sodium carbonate and 3 grammes sodium nitrate, dissolve in water, filter, again fuse the residue, dissolve, and filter, add together the two filtrates, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, boil to expel carbonic acid, and pass hydrogen sulphide to precipitate the molybdenum sulphide. From this point proceed as in iron and steel.

RAPID METHODS.*

Treat .5 gramme of the sample in a large platinum crucible with 2 c.c. sulphuric acid and 12 c.c. water until dissolved, evaporate to dryness, add 30 grammes fused potassium bisulphate, and fuse thoroughly. Run the fused mass well up on the sides of the crucible and cool. Place the crucible in a beaker with about 500 c.c. of hot water and heat until the fused mass has dissolved. Wash and remove the crucible.

Cool the solution, transfer to a litre flask, add 100 c.c. ammonium hydrate, and when the solution has the temperature of the air dilute to

* See F. T. Kopp in Journal of American Chemical Society, xxiv. 186.

the mark. Mix thoroughly by passing the solution into a dry beaker and back into the flask several times. Allow the precipitate of ferric oxide to settle and filter through a dry paper. To 500 c.c. of the clear filtrate add 40 c.c. strong sulphuric acid, pass through a reductor, and titrate exactly as described on page 93 *et seq.* To calculate the amount of molybdenum, multiply the value of 1 c.c. of the permanganate solution in iron by .58709, which is the ratio of iron to molybdenum. This will give the value of 1 c.c. of the permanganate in molybdenum. As .25 gramme is used, multiply the number of c.c. required by 4 and the result by the value of the permanganate solution in molybdenum, and the result is the amount of molybdenum in one gramme of the sample.

When tungsten is present, treat 1 gramme as on page 201, but before filtering off the tungstic acid dilute to 100 c.c., filter through a dry filter, evaporate 50 c.c. of the filtrate in a crucible with the addition of 10 c.c. sulphuric acid, fuse with potassium bisulphate, and proceed as above, calculating the amount to .5 gramme.

In Ferro-Molybdenum.

Dissolve .5 gramme of the sample in a platinum crucible in dilute nitric acid, add 2 c.c. strong sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, fuse with potassium bisulphate, and proceed as above.

DETERMINATION OF NITROGEN.

This method is based on the reaction by which the nitrogen in iron or steel is converted into ammonia by hydrochloric acid during the solution of the steel in this reagent.

It was first published by A. H. Allen,* with many interesting details and results. The modifications of the method as described by Mr. Allen are by Prof. J. W. Langley,† of Pittsburg, and consist essentially in the use of caustic soda freed from nitrates and nitrites by the copper-zinc couple and subsequent distillation of all ammonia formed, and in a few details of manipulation.

The reagents required are:

Hydrochloric Acid of 1.1 sp. gr., free from Ammonia, which may

* Chemical News, xli. 231. † Communicated to the author.

be prepared by distilling pure hydrochloric acid gas into distilled water free from ammonia. To do this, take a large flask fitted with a rubber stopper carrying a separatory funnel-tube and an evolution-tube, fill it half full of strong hydrochloric acid, connect the evolution-tube with a wash-bottle connected with a bottle containing the distilled water. Admit strong sulphuric acid free from nitrous acid to the flask through the funnel-tube, apply heat as required, and distil the gas into the prepared water.

Test the acid by admitting some of it into the distilling apparatus, described farther on, and distilling it from an excess of pure caustic soda, or determine the amount of ammonia in a portion of hydrochloric acid of 1.1 sp. gr., and use the amount found as a correction.

Solution of Caustic Soda, made by dissolving 300 grammes of fused caustic soda in 500 c.c. of water, and digesting it for twenty-four hours at 50° C. on a copper-zinc couple, made, as described by Gladstone & Tribe, as follows. Place from 25 to 30 grammes of thin sheet zinc in a flask and cover with a moderately concentrated, slightly warm solution of copper sulphate. A thick spongy coating of copper will be deposited on the zinc. Pour off the solution in about ten minutes and wash thoroughly with cold distilled water.

Nessler Reagent. Dissolve 35 grammes of potassium iodide in a small quantity of distilled water, and add a strong solution of mercuric chloride little by little, shaking after each addition, until the red precipitate formed dissolves. Finally the precipitate formed will fail to dissolve, then stop the addition of the mercury salt and filter. Add to the filtrate 120 grammes of caustic soda dissolved in a small amount of water, and dilute until the entire solution measures 1 litre. Add to this 5 c.c. of saturated aqueous solution of mercuric chloride, mix thoroughly, allow the precipitate formed to settle, and decant or siphon off the clear liquid into a glass-stoppered bottle.

Standard Ammonia Solution. Dissolve 0.0382 gramme of ammonium chloride in 1 litre of water. 1 c.c. of this solution will equal 0.01 milligramme of nitrogen.

Distilled Water free from Ammonia. If the ordinary distilled water

contains ammonia, redistil it, reject the first portions coming over, and use the subsequent portions, which will be found free from ammonia. Several glass cylinders of colorless glass of about 160 c.c. capacity are also required.

The best form of distilling apparatus consists of an Erlenmeyer flask of about 1500 c.c. capacity, with a rubber stopper, carrying a separatory funnel-tube and an evolution-tube, the latter connected with a condensing-tube around which passes a constant stream of cold water. The inside tube, where it issues from the condenser, should be sufficiently high to dip into one of the glass cylinders placed on the working-table.

The determination of nitrogen is made as follows. Place 30 c.c. of the caustic soda, which has been treated with the copper-zinc couple, in the Erlenmeyer flask, add 500 c.c. of water, and distil until the distillate gives no reaction with the Nessler reagent. While this part of the operation is in progress, dissolve 3 grammes of the carefully washed drillings in 30 c.c. of the prepared hydrochloric acid, using heat if necessary. Transfer the solution to the bulb of the separatory funnel-tube, and when the soda solution is free from ammonia, drop the ferrous chloride solution into the boiling solution in the flask, very slowly. The ferrous hydrate formed is apt to stick to the bottom and sides of the flask and cause it to break. When about 50 c.c. of water have been collected in the cylinder, remove it and substitute another cylinder. Place 1½ c.c. of the Nessler reagent in a cylinder, dilute the distillate to 100 c.c. with the special distilled water and pour it into the cylinder containing the Nessler reagent. Take another cylinder, place 1½ c.c. of the Nessler reagent in it, and pour into it 100 c.c. of the special distilled water to which 1 c.c. of the ammonium chloride solution has been added, and compare the colors of the solutions in the two cylinders. If the solution in the cylinder containing the ammonium chloride solution is lighter in color than that in the cylinder containing the distillate, place 1½ c.c. of the Nessler reagent in another cylinder, pour into it 100 c.c. of water containing 2 or more c.c. of the ammonium chloride solution, and repeat this operation until the colors of the solutions in the two cylinders correspond after standing about ten minutes. When about 100 c.c. have distilled into the second cylinder, replace it and test as before. Continue the distillation until

the water comes over free from ammonia, then add together the number of c.c. of ammonia solution used, divide the sum by 3, and each 0.01 milligramme will be 0.001 per cent. of nitrogen in the steel.

DETERMINATION OF IRON.

The combined carbon in steel and iron interferes with a direct determination of the amount of metallic iron by solution of the drillings in hydrochloric or sulphuric acid and direct titration. It is always necessary to oxidize the iron and carbonaceous matter in the solution, and the process may be carried out as follows:

Dissolve .5 gramme of the drillings in a small flask, as described for the determination of iron in iron ores, in hydrochloric acid, add potassium chlorate in small crystals until the iron is all oxidized and an excess of potassium chlorate is present, boil until all the yellow fumes have disappeared, and then proceed as in the determination of iron in iron ores (page 224). Instead of potassium chlorate, potassium permanganate or chromic acid may be used to oxidize the iron and destroy the carbonaceous matter. In pig-irons the most satisfactory method is to fuse .5 gramme of the borings in a large platinum crucible with 10 grammes sodium carbonate and 2 grammes potassium nitrate, dissolve in hot water, transfer to a small beaker, allow the ferric oxide to settle, decant on a small filter, and wash several times by decantation. After the last decantation, remove the beaker containing the filtrate and place the beaker containing the ferric oxide under the funnel. Dissolve any adhering oxide in the crucible with hydrochloric acid, dilute slightly, and pour it on the filter to dissolve the small amount of oxide, allowing the solution to run into the beaker. Wash the filter if necessary, add more hydrochloric acid to the solution in the beaker, evaporate down, transfer to a small flask, deoxidize, and titrate as before. In the case of puddled iron, it is necessary to subtract the iron in the "slag and oxides" from the total iron obtained as above to get the amount of *metallic iron* in the sample.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

CHROME-TUNGSTEN STEELS.

BESIDES chromium and tungsten, these steels may contain nickel, vanadium, and molybdenum, as well as the ordinary elements, manganese, silicon, sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon.

DETERMINATION OF CARBON.

The best method for the determination of carbon is the direct combustion in oxygen as given on page 134 *et seq.* The double chloride method gives results from 10 per cent. to 40 per cent. too low.

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR.

The evolution method is practicable and accurate for steels of this character.

DETERMINATION OF SILICON AND TUNGSTEN.

Treat 2 grammes of the drillings with 50 c.c. of hydrochloric and 15 c.c. of nitric acid in a 400 c.c. beaker. Heat gently until the material is decomposed and the tungstic acid, if it separates, is bright yellow in color. Evaporate to dryness but do not bake. Redissolve in 20 c.c. of hydrochloric acid, add a few drops of nitric acid, and boil for a few minutes. Add 100 c.c. of hot water and boil. Filter, wash thoroughly with water containing 150 c.c. of hydrochloric acid to the litre. Dissolve any tungstic acid that adheres too firmly to the beaker to be rubbed off, in ammonia, wash it into a weighed crucible, and evaporate to dryness. Place the precipitate

of tungstic acid which has been filtered and washed in the crucible and ignite it. In the mean time evaporate the filtrate to dryness and heat to render the silica insoluble. Redissolve in 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and if the solution is to be used for the determination of phosphorus or manganese, drive off the hydrochloric acid by repeated evaporations with nitric acid. Evaporate to syrupy consistency and dissolve in 50 c.c. of nitric acid (1.135 sp. gr.). Filter into a flask, wash with 50 c.c. of the same acid, add the precipitate to the ignited precipitate in the crucible, burn and weigh. If the solution is to be used for the determination of the chromium, nickel, etc., instead of evaporating off the hydrochloric acid with nitric acid, add a few drops of nitric acid and 100 c.c. of water, boil for ten minutes, filter and wash as before. Add this precipitate to the other, ignite and weigh. Treat the precipitate with hydrofluoric and a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate carefully to dryness, ignite and weigh. The loss of weight is silica, which multiplied by .4702 gives the weight of the silicon. Fuse the mass in the crucible with sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate. Dissolve in water, filter, wash well with hot water, return the insoluble to the crucible, ignite and weigh. The difference between this and the last weight is tungstic acid, which multiplied by .7931 gives the weight of tungsten.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS.

Treat the nitric acid solution in the flask exactly as described on page 92 *et seq.*

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE.

Treat the nitric acid solution by Ford's method, page 113 *et seq.*

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM.

Evaporate the hydrochloric acid filtrate, as noted above, to syrupy consistency, and separate the chromium oxide by the ether method, page 194.

DETERMINATION OF NICKEL, CHROMIUM, AND MANGANESE.

When nickel, chromium, and manganese are present and all are to be determined, the best method of procedure is to evaporate nearly to dryness the hydrochloric acid solution after the separation by ether. Transfer it to a platinum crucible, evaporate to dryness, heat to dull redness, and fuse the mass in the crucible with sodium carbonate and potassium nitrate. Treat the fused mass with water and filter. The iron, the nickel, and part of the manganese remain insoluble, while the chromium and the rest of the manganese are in the filtrate. Evaporate this filtrate with ammonium nitrate as described on page 194, and filter. Dissolve the insoluble matter on the filter in hydrochloric acid and add to it the hydrochloric acid solution of the insoluble matter left by the fusion as described above. Determine the chromium in the filtrate from the ammonium nitrate as directed on page 194. Evaporate to dryness the hydrochloric acid solution of the nickel, manganese, and iron, redissolve in a little hydrochloric acid, dilute, and separate the iron from the nickel and manganese by sodium acetate. In the filtrate from the iron precipitate the nickel by hydrogen sulphide. Filter, wash, ignite the nickel sulphide, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate until it fumes freely. Determine the nickel by electrolysis. Boil the filtrate from the nickel sulphide to expel the hydrogen sulphide and precipitate the manganese by bromine. Filter and determine the manganese as described on page 110, or dissolve the washed precipitate of manganese dioxide in sulphurous acid, evaporate with nitric acid, and determine the manganese by the bismuthate method, page 122.

DETERMINATION OF VANADIUM.

Treat 2 grammes of drillings as for chromium and evaporate to dryness the hydrochloric acid solution from the ether separation after adding a little nitric acid. Repeat the evaporation with hydrochloric acid twice and determine the vanadium as directed on page 202.

SEPARATION OF CHROMIUM AND VANADIUM.

Campagne* gives a method for the separation of chromium and vanadium which is quite accurate when the chromium is not present in too great an amount. The method is based on the fact that the di-vanadyl sulphate is oxidized readily in the cold by potassium permanganate, while the chromium is not affected. Titrate the solution obtained above for vanadium in the cold, then add a large excess of potassium permanganate and boil vigorously to oxidize the chromium sulphate to chromic acid and the di-vanadyl sulphate to vanadic sulphate. The solution should remain pink in color after boiling. Then add a small amount of paper pulp to reduce the permanganate and filter. To the cold filtrate add an excess of standardized ammonium ferrous sulphate and titrate the excess of ferrous salt with permanganate. The difference is the amount of the ferrous salt oxidized by the chromic acid.

$2CrO_3 + 6FeSO_4 + 6H_2SO_4 = Cr_2(SO_4)_3 + 3Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + 6H_2O$ and $10FeSO_4 + 2KMnO_4 + 8H_2SO_4 = 5Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + K_2SO_4 + 2MnSO_4 + 8H_2O$, whence 3 equivalents of iron 168 = 1 equivalent of chromium 52.14, or the value in iron of the permanganate equivalent to the ferrous sulphate oxidized by the chromic acid multiplied by .3103 equals the chromium.

The vanadium has no influence on this result, because the vanadic sulphate which is reduced to vanadyl-sulphate by the ferrous sulphate is re-oxidized by the permanganate in the cold solution, while the chromium sulphate is not affected.

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* Bull. Soc. Chem., series iii., vol. xxxi., No. 16.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

FERRO-TUNGSTEN AND TUNGSTEN METAL.

DETERMINATION OF CARBON

Mix one gramme of the finely ground metal with 2 grammes of finely divided low-carbon steel, or, better, with finely powdered electrolytic iron, and burn it in the manner described for the determination of carbon in steel by direct combustion in a current of oxygen, page 134. The electrolytic iron made by Prof. Burgess is admirable for this purpose, for it contains only about 0.030 per cent. carbon and can be reduced to a very fine powder. Of course, the amount of carbon in the steel or iron used must be subtracted from the amount obtained by combustion of the mixture.

DETERMINATION OF TUNGSTEN.

Ferro-tungsten may be treated exactly like chrome-tungsten steels, but tungsten metal may be fused (.5 gramme) with sodium carbonate and potassium nitrate and the tungsten determined by precipitation with mercurous nitrate, as on page 201.

Tungsten metal is insoluble in nitric acid alone, but the addition of a few drops of hydrofluoric acid causes it to dissolve completely. An alternate method is based on this fact. Place .5 gramme of the finely ground metal in a large platinum crucible, add 25 c.c. nitric acid (1.2 sp. gr.), and heat carefully. Add a few drops of hydrofluoric acid and, when decomposition is complete, add a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, heat

to redness and weigh. Fuse with sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate, cool, dissolve in water, filter, wash, return the filter and contents to the crucible, ignite and weigh. The difference between the weights is tungstic acid.

DETERMINATION OF THE OTHER ELEMENTS.

As ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal are decomposed by aqua regia, the other elements may be determined as in chrome-tungsten steel, with the exception of sulphur.

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR.

As tungsten metal is insoluble in hydrochloric acid, the sulphur must be determined by treating 1 to 2 grammes with aqua regia, as for the determination of silicon in chrome-tungsten steels, page 211. Evaporate the solution from the silicon determination almost to dryness, take up in 4 c.c. of hydrochloric acid, dilute to 100 c.c. with hot water, heat to boiling, and precipitate by barium chloride solution. Determine the sulphur as on page 66.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

FERRO-CHROME, FERRO-SILICON, AND FERRO-TITANIUM.

DETERMINATION OF CARBON.

CARBON may be determined with a considerable degree of accuracy in some of these alloys by combustion with lead chromate and potassium chlorate in a glass tube, as described on page 129. The best method, however, is by direct combustion as described for tungsten metal (page 216).

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR.

Fuse 2 grammes of the sample ground as fine as possible in an agate mortar with 15 grammes of sodium peroxide in a large nickel crucible. The heat should be applied very slowly and cautiously, as sodium peroxide gives up its oxygen at a low temperature and the amount of heat generated by the oxidation of the chromium, silicon, etc., of the alloys is very great. An alcohol blast-lamp should be used, as the sulphur in ordinary gas is liable to vitiate the result. As soon as the mass is liquid, raise the heat for a few minutes, run the fused mass well up on the sides of the crucible, and allow it to cool. Stand the crucible in a 400 c.c. beaker containing a little water, partly cover the beaker with a watch-glass, and throw a fine stream of cold water into the crucible from a wash-bottle. When the violent action has ceased, wash

the fusion from the crucible and filter from the insoluble ferric oxide, etc., washing the insoluble matter with water containing a little sodium carbonate. Acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid and evaporate to dryness, preferably in a porcelain beaker. When thoroughly dry, cool, add 20 c.c. of strong hydrochloric acid, and heat until in the case of ferro-chrome all the chromium is redissolved. Dilute with hot water, filter, wash thoroughly with hot water, neutralize with ammonia, add 20 or 30 drops of hydrochloric acid, heat to boiling, add 10 c.c. of a boiling saturated solution of barium chloride, and boil for half an hour. Allow the solution to stand in a warm place overnight, filter, wash thoroughly, ignite, and weigh the barium sulphate.

DETERMINATION OF SILICON.

Ferro-silicon which is capable of being decomposed by acids is treated like steel, except that from 1 to 2 grammes is sufficient for the determination of silicon. For those not decomposed by acids and for ferro-chrome and ferro-titanium proceed as follows. Fuse 1 gramme with 10 grammes of sodium peroxide, treat with water, and finally with hydrochloric acid. Evaporate to dryness in a platinum or porcelain dish. When platinum is used for the evaporation, it is best to add an excess of sulphurous acid to the solution to prevent action on the platinum by the chlorine liberated by the action of the hydrochloric acid on the chromic or manganic acid in the solution.

Redissolve in hydrochloric acid and water, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh. Treat the weighed silica, etc., in the crucible with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. The difference between the two weights is silica, which contains 47.02 per cent. of silicon.

In ferro-titanium, when filtering off the silica, etc., the greater part of the titanic acid will be with the silica, and as it has a tendency to pass through the filter when washed with water, the washing must be done with dilute hydrochloric acid. Instead of treating the ignited

residue with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, it is better to fuse it with potassium bisulphate, which dissolves the titanic acid; dissolve the fused mass in water, filter, ignite, and weigh the silica as above.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORUS.

In Ferro-Chrome.

Fuse 2 grammes of the finely ground material with 15 grammes of sodium peroxide in a nickel crucible, and treat it with water as directed for the determination of sulphur. The aqueous solution will contain sodium chromate and phosphate, besides silica, etc. Filter, and wash with water containing a little sodium carbonate. Acidulate the filtrate with nitric acid, heat to drive off the carbonic acid, add a little ferric chloride solution, add ammonia until the solution is alkaline to litmus-paper, and then acidulate with acetic acid. Boil for a few minutes, filter, and wash the precipitate of ferric phosphate and hydrate with hot water. Dissolve the precipitate on the filter in hot dilute hydrochloric acid, evaporate the solution to dryness, redissolve in a few drops of hydrochloric acid, and, if there is an appreciable amount of silica, dilute and filter, evaporate to a small bulk, and drive off the hydrochloric acid with nitric acid. In the absence of any material amount of silica, omit the filtration, add nitric acid, and evaporate to get rid of the hydrochloric acid. Transfer the nitric acid solution to a flask, precipitate by molybdate solution, and determine the phosphorus as described on page 92 *et seq.*

In Ferro-Silicon.

Fuse 2 grammes with sodium peroxide as described above, treat with water, and filter. As the solution contains a large amount of silica, evaporate to dryness after acidulating with hydrochloric acid, redissolve in water and hydrochloric acid, and filter. To the filtrate add a little ferric chloride solution, and proceed as in the case of ferro-chrome.

In Ferro-Titanium.

Fuse 2 grammes as described above, treat with water, and filter. The titanic acid will be insoluble as sodium titanate. Acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, add ferric chloride solution, and proceed as in the case of ferro-silicon.

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE.

Proceed as in the determination of silicon, and, after filtering off the silica, evaporate the filtrate nearly to dryness, add nitric acid and evaporate off the hydrochloric acid, precipitate by potassium chlorate, and determine the manganese as in Ford's method (page 113).

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM.

Gravimetric Method.

Fuse .5 gramme with 5 grammes of sodium peroxide in a nickel crucible, treat with water, and filter. If the residue insoluble in water does not dissolve completely in hydrochloric acid, filter, ignite, and fuse the residue in sodium peroxide. Dissolve in water, and if the solution is yellow, filter and add the filtrate to the first filtrate.

To the united filtrates add ammonium nitrate in sufficient quantity to convert all the sodium salts into nitrates, boil until the excess of ammonia is driven off, filter, and to the filtrate in a large platinum or porcelain dish add an excess of sulphurous acid. This will reduce all the chromic acid to chromium sesquioxide. Boil off the sulphurous acid, add an excess of ammonia, boil, filter, and wash thoroughly with boiling water. Dissolve the precipitate in hot hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, filter, and reprecipitate with ammonia. Boil, filter, wash, and ignite. Transfer the precipitate to a small beaker with water, add a little ammonium nitrate and a few drops of sulphurous acid, and boil until the solution no longer

smells of sulphurous acid. Add a little ammonia, boil, filter, wash with water containing ammonium nitrate, ignite, and weigh as chromium sesquioxide, which contains 68.48 per cent. of chromium.

Volumetric Method.

Fuse .5 gramme as above, treat with water, filter, and wash. Boil the filtrate thoroughly to decompose all the sodium peroxide, acidulate with sulphuric acid, cool, add an excess of ferrous sulphate, and titrate with a standard solution of potassium bichromate. The chromium is calculated as in the volumetric method for chromium in steel (page 194 *et seq.*).

The use of permanganate is inadmissible, as the intense green color of the solution masks the end reaction.

DETERMINATION OF IRON.

Fuse .5 gramme of the fine powder in a platinum crucible with 5 grammes of sodium peroxide. Do not heat the fusion after it has become liquid, as the sodium peroxide cuts the platinum crucible. A nickel crucible cannot be used, as all nickel crucibles contain appreciable amounts of iron, so that the amount of iron derived from the nickel depends on the extent of the action on the crucible. Treat the fused mass with water and filter. Dissolve the residue, which contains all the iron, in hydrochloric acid, reduce with zinc, and titrate with permanganate in the usual way.

In ferro-titanium, as the titanic acid is with the iron, it cannot be reduced with zinc, and reduction with ammonium sulphite, as in the case of titaniferous iron ores (page 227), must be resorted to.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

IRON ORES.

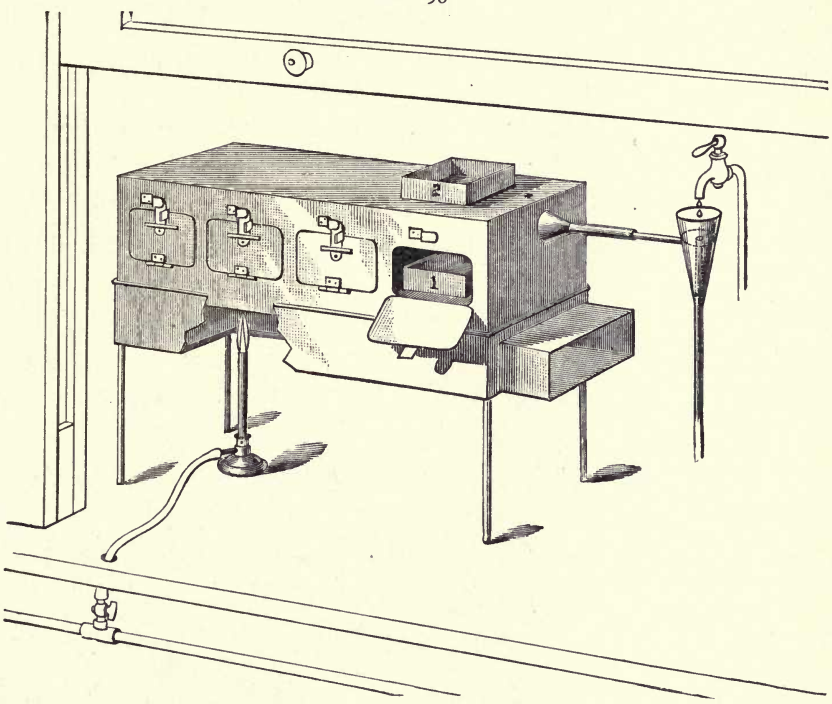
A FEW words in regard to the proper method of taking samples of iron ores may not be amiss, for unless the sample truly represents the lot from which it is taken, the subsequent work of the analyst is useless, if not misleading.

In drawing a sample, note carefully the relative amounts of fine ore and lumps in the lot to be sampled, and see that this proportion be observed in the whole amount taken. A small trowel may be used for taking the fine ore, and only about a teaspoonful should be picked up at one time. In taking pieces from the lumps, it will never do to merely chip the outside, but each lump as selected should be broken and chippings no larger than a cherry taken from both the inside and the outside. In sampling from cars or wagons these points should be observed in each car or wagon, for it is rarely the case that the ore even from one mine is so uniform as to render this precaution unnecessary. In some cases the lumps are covered with dirt or gangue, making the outside of the lump poorer in iron than the inside, and on the other hand the lumps are merely masses of dirt coated with ore. Then the fine stuff may be much richer than the lumps, or it may be merely dirt or gangue, while it almost always contains more hygroscopic water than the lumps. The sample should be taken in tin cans with close-fitting lids, and the amount should be proportioned to the size of the lot sampled. Two pounds to ten tons is a good rule for large lots.

DETERMINATION OF HYGROSCOPIC WATER.

Break the sample down quickly to about pea size, mix thoroughly in a large glazed earthenware or metal dish, and weigh out from ½ to 1 kilo. into a copper box about 4½ inches (114 mm.) long, 3¾ inches (95 mm.) wide, and 1½ inches (38 mm.) deep, and dry in a water- or air-bath at 100° C. for at least twelve hours, or until it ceases to lose weight. Fig. 95 shows a convenient form of water-bath. The boxes are numbered, and

FIG. 95.



each one is provided with a counterpoise stamped with the same number as the box, to facilitate the weighing. When a supply of water is not available to run the constant level shown in Fig. 95, the device, on the principle of Mariotte's flask, as shown in Fig. 86, page 177, may be used. The position of the end *b* of the tube *a* fixes the level of the water in the bath.

A balance sensitive to .1 gramme is sufficiently accurate for weighing these samples. The loss of weight in grammes divided by 5, when ½ kilo. of ore was originally used, gives the percentage of hygroscopic water in the sample. Grind the dried sample very fine, mix it well, heat as much of it as may be required for the analysis in the water-bath, and put it while still hot into a perfectly dry, glass-stoppered bottle.

DETERMINATION OF TOTAL IRON.

Very few iron ores are completely decomposed by hydrochloric acid, the insoluble residue usually containing more or less iron, as silicate, titaniferous iron, etc. The disregard of this fact may occasion grave errors in the determination of iron, and, unless a previous examination has shown the absence of iron in the insoluble residue, it is best to proceed as follows. Place 1 gramme of the finely ground sample in a No. 1 beaker, add 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and digest it on the hot plate until the residue appears quite white and flotant, or until the acid appears to have no further action. When the ore contains carbonaceous matter, add a little potassium chlorate. Wash off the watch-glass with a fine jet of water, remove it, and evaporate to dryness in the air-bath. Redissolve in about 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, dilute with 10 c.c. water, allow to settle, and decant the clear liquid into a flask of from 50 to 75 c.c. capacity. Transfer the residue to a small filter, fitted in a funnel placed in the neck of the flask, with as little water as possible, and wash with cold water from a fine jet. Transfer the filter to a small platinum crucible, burn it off, allow the crucible to cool, and pour on the residue 20 or 30 drops of sulphuric acid and about twice as much hydrofluoric acid. Heat carefully, and, if the residue is dissolved, evaporate off the hydrofluoric acid, allow the liquid to cool, and dilute slightly, when it will be ready to add to the solution in the flask, which will have been deoxidized in the mean time by one of the methods explained farther on.

Occasionally this treatment fails to decompose the insoluble residue, in which case heat the crucible until the greater part of the sulphuric

acid is driven off; then add about .5 gramme potassium bisulphate, and heat gradually until the potassium bisulphate is quite liquid and fumes of sulphuric acid are given off whenever the lid of the crucible is raised. When all the black specks have disappeared, allow the crucible to cool, and dissolve the salt in the crucible with hot water and a few drops of hydrochloric acid.

Several methods are used for the deoxidation of the solution of ferric chloride, but the one in general use is by adding metallic zinc to the solution. The iron is deoxidized according to the reaction $Fe_2Cl_6 + Zn = 2FeCl_2 + ZnCl_2$, while the excess of hydrochloric acid is decomposed and hydrogen liberated, $2HCl + Zn = ZnCl_2 + 2H$. As all zinc contains a small amount of iron, the amount added to the solution should be roughly weighed. Add then to the solution in the flask 3 grammes of granulated zinc,* and, when the evolution of hydrogen has somewhat slackened, heat the flask slightly. The neck of the flask is closed by a small funnel, which allows the hydrogen to escape while the liquid is caught on the funnel and falls back into the flask. It sometimes happens as the solution becomes neutralized that a basic salt of ferric oxide is thrown down, giving the solution a reddish color; in this case add a few drops of hydrochloric acid, and when the solution finally becomes colorless add a few drops more of hydrochloric acid. If this fails to produce a yellowish coloration, the solution may be considered deoxidized. Pour in through the funnel the solution of the residue insoluble in hydrochloric acid, and add gradually a mixture of 10 c.c. sulphuric acid and 20 c.c. water. This addition of sulphuric acid is a very necessary part of the operation, for it not only serves to dissolve the remainder of the zinc which is unacted on when the deoxidation is complete, but it supplies the proper amount of zinc sulphate, which makes the end reaction with potassium permanganate as sharp as if no hydrochloric acid were present in the solution. As soon as all the zinc is dissolved, wash down the funnel inside and out and the neck of the flask with a fine jet of water, filling the flask almost full, cool the flask in water, and when

* See page 58.

the solution is quite cold transfer it to a large white dish of about 1500 c.c. capacity. Wash the flask and funnel well with cold water, pour the rinsing into the dish, and make the solution up to about 1000 c.c. Run in from a burette a standard solution of potassium permanganate (Marguerite's method), the value of which has been carefully determined by one of the methods described farther on. At first the color of the permanganate is destroyed almost as soon as it touches the liquid in the dish, which should be stirred carefully with a glass rod. The permanganate should be added more and more slowly until towards the end of the operation it is added only drop by drop. The liquid in the dish gradually assumes a yellowish tint, which is deeper the larger the amount of iron in the ore. Finally a drop of the permanganate seems to destroy the yellow color, and the next drop gives the liquid a very faint pink tinge. This is the end of the reaction. Take the reading of the burette, and then add another drop, which will cause the solution to become decidedly pink in color. The number of c.c. of the standard solution used when the reading was taken, less a small correction for the zinc, etc., noted farther on, multiplied by the value of 1 c.c., gives the amount of metallic iron in the ore.

The simple form of reductor (Fig. 52) shown on page 94 may be used for deoxidizing the solution of the ore in which the iron is in the form of sulphate. With amalgamated zinc it is a most excellent and rapid device. The method of reduction is given on page 95 in the description of the method of standardizing the potassium permanganate solution.

When using a standard solution of potassium bichromate (Penny's method), the end reaction is not rendered apparent by a change in the color of the solution, but the presence or absence of ferrous salt in the solution is determined by taking a drop from the dish on the end of the stirring-rod and allowing it to run into a drop of a dilute, freshly made solution of potassium ferricyanide placed on a white tile or capsule. Dissolve a very small crystal of potassium ferricyanide in a few c.c. of water, and place a number of drops of the solution on a white tile or on a flat-bottomed capsule. Run the carefully standardized solution of potassium bichromate from the burette into the deoxidized iron solution

previously placed in a white dish. The solution, at first colorless, changes gradually to a decided chrome-green from the reduction of the chromic acid. Test the progress of the oxidation of the iron solution by transferring a drop of it on the end of the stirring-rod to one of the drops of ferricyanide. As the blue color produced becomes less intense, add the bichromate more slowly and make the test more frequently, towards the end of the operation after the addition of each drop of bichromate. When, finally, no color appears in the test-drops, even after the lapse of several moments, the oxidation of the ferrous salt is complete, and the amount of bichromate used, less a small correction for the zinc, is the measure of the amount of iron in the ore. The potassium ferricyanide employed must, of course, be perfectly free from ferrocyanide: it may be tested by adding a drop of ferric chloride solution to one of the drops of ferricyanide solution, the absence of any resulting blue color in the test-drops being proof of the purity of the ferricyanide. As towards the end of the operation the frequent tests become rather tedious, some analysts prefer to make the determinations in duplicate, using the first to get an approximate result.

When the ore is completely decomposed by hydrochloric acid, a separate treatment of the residue is unnecessary, and the ore may be weighed at once into the flask and treated with 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and a little potassium chlorate when organic matter is present. When the ore is completely decomposed, and any chlorine from the potassium chlorate driven off, add 30 c.c. of water, and proceed with the deoxidation.

Instead of deoxidizing the solution of ferric chloride by zinc, it may be deoxidized by a solution of ammonium bisulphite. In fact, the deoxidation by zinc is not practicable in ores containing much titanic acid, for the titanic acid is reduced by metallic zinc to titanic oxide, imparting a purple or blue color to the solution, and acting like a solution of ferrous salt on the standard solution of permanganate. In deoxidizing a solution of ferric chloride by this method it should be placed in a flask of 120 c.c. capacity, and two or three small spirals of platinum wire added to facilitate the subsequent boiling. Add cautiously to the solution (which should not exceed 40 c.c. in volume) enough ammonia to produce a slight permanent precipitate of ferric hydrate, which remains even after vigorous shaking. Add

now 5 c.c. of a strong solution of ammonium bisulphite,* shake vigorously, and warm the flask gently. As the color of the solution (at first a deep red) fades, increase the heat, and finally heat to boiling. When the solution is colorless, add to it the solution of the residue and 10 c.c. sulphuric acid mixed with 20 c.c. water. Boil the solution until all the sulphurous acid is driven off. When the escaping steam no longer smells of sulphurous anhydride, place the flask in cold water, wash down the funnel and the neck of the flask, filling the latter full of water, and when the solution is cold transfer it to a dish and titrate with a standard solution.

A third method of deoxidizing the solution of ferric chloride is used, in which the reducing agent is a solution of stannous chloride. The investigations of Zimmerman † and Reinhardt ‡ have made this method of reduction a favorite one, especially when, by the use of phosphoric acid and manganous sulphate, the subsequent titration with potassium permanganate is practicable. The details are as follows. Prepare the following solutions:

1. Phosphoric acid solution. Dissolve 200 grammes of crystallized manganous sulphate in 1 litre of water, add a few drops of sulphuric acid, and filter. Add to this 1 litre of phosphoric acid (1.3 sp. gr.), 600 c.c. water, and 400 c.c. strong sulphuric acid.

2. Stannous chloride solution. Dissolve 120 grammes of granulated tin, free from iron, in 500 c.c. hydrochloric acid (1.19 sp. gr.), dilute to 1 litre, and filter through asbestos. To the filtrate add 1 litre of hydrochloric acid (1.124 sp. gr.) and 2 litres of water.

3. Mercuric chloride solution. Dissolve 50 grammes of mercuric chloride in 1 litre of water and filter.

Dissolve 1 gramme of the ore in 30 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid (if necessary, ignite, and fuse the residue with a little sodium carbonate, dissolve in water and hydrochloric acid, and add to the main solution), transfer to a 150 c.c. Erlemeyer flask, heat to boiling, and add, from a burette, stannous chloride solution until the color of the solution fades completely. Pour into the dish 600 c.c. of water and add to it 60 c.c. of the phosphoric

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* See page 44.

† Berichte d. Chem. Ges., 1884, xv. 779.

‡ Chem. Zeit., xiii. 324.

acid solution. To the deoxidized solution in the flask add 60 c.c. of the mercuric chloride solution, pouring it all in at once, shake vigorously and wash the solution out into the dish, using plenty of wash-water, and titrate with permanganate in the usual way. The phosphoric acid makes the solution nearly colorless by forming ferric phosphate, and the end reaction is very sharp.

The mercuric chloride should not be added until everything is ready for the titration, as the absence of any deoxidizing substance may cause the solution to become slightly oxidized on standing.

Mixer and Dubois * give several modifications of the method as used in the Lake Superior region. They employ a solution of potassium permanganate of such strength that 1 c.c. equals 2 per cent. of iron when .5 gramme of ore is used. They use for standardizing the permanganate an iron ore the amount of iron in which is accurately known, and if the permanganate is not exactly of the proper strength, such a weight of the ore is taken, approximating .5 gramme, that the reading of the burette multiplied by 2 gives the percentage of iron. Necessarily this implies the use of the same weight of the ore to be analyzed. They also add to the ore about 2.5 c.c. of a 25 per cent. solution of stannous chloride before adding the hydrochloric acid, as this is said to very much hasten the solution of the ore.

Methods for Standardizing the Solutions.

It is of the utmost importance that the value of the standard solution employed should be determined with the greatest accuracy if the results obtained by its use are to be anything but mere approximations. To do this, not only should the reagents employed be pure, but the conditions under which the standard is fixed should be, as nearly as practicable, those under which it is employed in actual use. The conditions referred to are not only those of temperature, dilution, etc., but of the actual chemical composition of the liquid acted on by the standard solution by which its value is determined.

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* Journal of the American Chem. Soc., xvii. 405.

The best reagent to employ is a solution of ferric chloride of known strength. To prepare this, dissolve 100 grammes of wrought iron (free from manganese and arsenic, and in which the phosphorus has been accurately determined) in nitric acid, evaporate to dryness in a capsule, and heat until the iron nitrate is largely decomposed and the mass separates easily from the bottom and sides of the capsule. Transfer to a piece of platinum-foil with the edges turned up, and heat for some time in a muffle at a very high temperature, or heat it, a portion at a time, in a crucible at the highest temperature obtainable by a blast-lamp. Grind the entire mass very fine in an agate mortar, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid, filter to get rid of silica, and dilute the solution to about 4 litres. 20 c.c. of this solution will contain about .5 gramme iron, and it may be kept indefinitely in a glass-stoppered bottle sealed with paraffine, or after being thoroughly mixed it may be preserved in a number of smaller bottles properly secured.

Wash out and dry thoroughly three of the small flasks used for deoxidizing the solutions of the ores, weigh them to within 1 mg., and measure into each a portion of the ferric chloride solution ranging from 15 to 25 c.c. in volume. Weigh the flasks and their contents; the differences between the first and second weights are the weights of the ferric chloride solution taken. Transfer the solution carefully from each flask to a platinum dish, dilute, boil, precipitate by ammonia, filter, wash, dry, ignite, and weigh the precipitate with the precautions mentioned farther on. The precipitate is ferric oxide + phosphoric acid. Subtract from this weight the amount of phosphoric acid in this weight of the material, and the remainder will be the weight of ferric oxide in the amount of solution used. Suppose, for example, that the original iron contained .1 per cent. phosphorus, this would be equivalent to 0.229 per cent. phosphoric acid, but, as the iron has been oxidized to ferric oxide, the percentage of phosphoric acid in the iron as oxide would be only $\frac{7}{10}$ as great as in the iron itself, the weight as oxide being $\frac{10}{7}$ as great as it was as iron. Therefore multiply .229 per cent. by .7 for the percentage of phosphoric acid in the ferric oxide, which gives .16 per cent. phosphoric acid. If we further suppose that the weight of ferric oxide + phosphoric

acid obtained was .8131 gramme, .16 per cent. of this would be .0013 gramme, the weight of phosphoric acid in the precipitate, and .8131 — .0013 = .8118 gramme, the weight of ferric oxide in the amount of solution taken. Divide this weight by the weight of the solution, and the result is the weight of ferric oxide in 1 gramme of the solution of ferric chloride. Take the mean of the three results obtained in this way, and call this result the value of the ferric chloride solution in ferric oxide, or multiply by .7 for its value in iron.

To standardize the permanganate or bichromate solution, weigh out three portions of the ferric chloride solution into the flasks, reduce them by the method selected, and titrate the reduced solutions exactly as directed above. Before calculating the strength of the standard solution a small correction must be applied to the burette reading, due to the fact that a definite amount of oxidizing solution is required to produce the end reaction in all cases where permanganate is used, and, when bichromate is used, in those cases where zinc has been the deoxidizing agent.

Treat 3 grammes of zinc in a small flask with 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 20 c.c. water, add gradually 10 c.c. sulphuric acid and 20 c.c. water. When the zinc has all dissolved, place the flask in cold water until the solution is cold. Wash it out into the dish, dilute to 1 litre, add 20 c.c. ferric chloride solution (free from ferrous salt), and drop in the standard solution until the end reaction is obtained. Subtract the correction thus obtained from every burette reading. To calculate the strength of the standard solution, therefore, subtract the correction from the burette reading, and the result is the absolute volume of the standard solution required to oxidize the ferrous salt in the solution operated on. Knowing then the weight of the ferric chloride solution used, the amount of iron in each gramme of the solution, and the volume of the standard required to oxidize this amount, the value of each c.c. of the standard solution is found by multiplying the weight of ferric chloride solution used by the value of each gramme in iron, and dividing the amount by the number of c.c. of the standard used in titrating. The mean of the results obtained in the three portions used should be taken as the value of the

standard solution. An example will illustrate the method of computation, and, as logarithms very much facilitate these calculations, they will be given in the example as well.

Weight of empty flask	22.8817	
Weight of flask + ferric chloride solution	40.0640	
Weight of ferric chloride solution used	17.1823	= log. 1.2350813
Value of ferric chloride solution, determined as on p. 230	1 gramme = .03227 gramme iron	= log. 8.5087990 — 10
Iron in ferric chloride solution used	.55448 gramme	= log. 9.7438803 — 10
Burette reading after titration	= 82.0 c.c.	
Less correction	0.25	
Corrected reading	81.75 c.c.	= log. 1.9124878
1 c.c. standard solution — .0067826 gramme iron		= log. 7.8313925 — 10

Of course in calculating the amount of iron in an ore it is only necessary to get the logarithm of the corrected reading (page 231) and add it to the logarithm of the standard solution as found above, the number corresponding to the resulting logarithm being the weight of iron in grammes in the ore. This multiplied by 100 will give the percentage.

Very fine iron wire may be used to standardize the solutions instead of a standard solution of ferric chloride. Weigh into the reducing flasks from .4 to .6 gramme of fine iron wire (page 55) which has been carefully rubbed with fine sand-paper and wiped clean with a linen rag. Dissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 20 c.c. water, with the addition of a few small crystals of potassium chlorate. Deoxidize carefully, and titrate as before directed. Multiply the weight of iron wire by .998 to get the absolute amount of iron used, apply the proper correction to the burette reading, and calculate the value of the standard.

Ferrous sulphate, $FeSO_4,7H_2O$,* containing 20.1439 per cent. iron, or the ferrous-ammonium sulphate, $FeSO_4,(NH_4)_2SO_4,6H_2O$,† containing 14.2857 per cent., or almost exactly one-seventh of its weight of iron, may be used instead of ferric chloride solution or iron wire to determine the value of the standard solutions. The pure salts are generally weighed off, dis-

* See page 56.

† See page 56.

solved in water with 10 c.c. sulphuric acid added, and titrated direct, but they are not so satisfactory in use as the first and second methods described. It is important to have the standard solutions of the proper strength,—that is, neither too dilute nor too concentrated for convenience in working. As iron ores rarely contain more than 60 per cent. metallic iron, a standard solution 100 c.c. of which are equal to .66 gramme iron will be found sufficiently concentrated to avoid the necessity of refilling the burette for a determination; and where ores much poorer than this are habitually used the solutions may be correspondingly more dilute.

When potassium permanganate is added to a solution of ferrous sulphate the reaction is $10FeSO_4 + 2KMnO_4 + 8H_2SO_4 = 5Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + K_2SO_4 + 2MnSO_4 + 8H_2O$, or 316.2 parts by weight of potassium permanganate will oxidize 560 parts by weight of iron, or 3.727 grammes potassium permanganate to the litre will give a solution of about the strength required.

In the case of potassium bichromate the reaction is $6FeSO_4 + K_2Cr_2O_7 + 7H_2SO_4 = 3Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + K_2SO_4 + Cr_2(SO_4)_3 + 7H_2O$, or 294.5 parts by weight of potassium bichromate will oxidize 336 parts of iron, or 5.785 grammes of potassium bichromate dissolved in 1 litre of water will give a solution 100 c.c. of which will be equivalent to about .66 gramme iron.

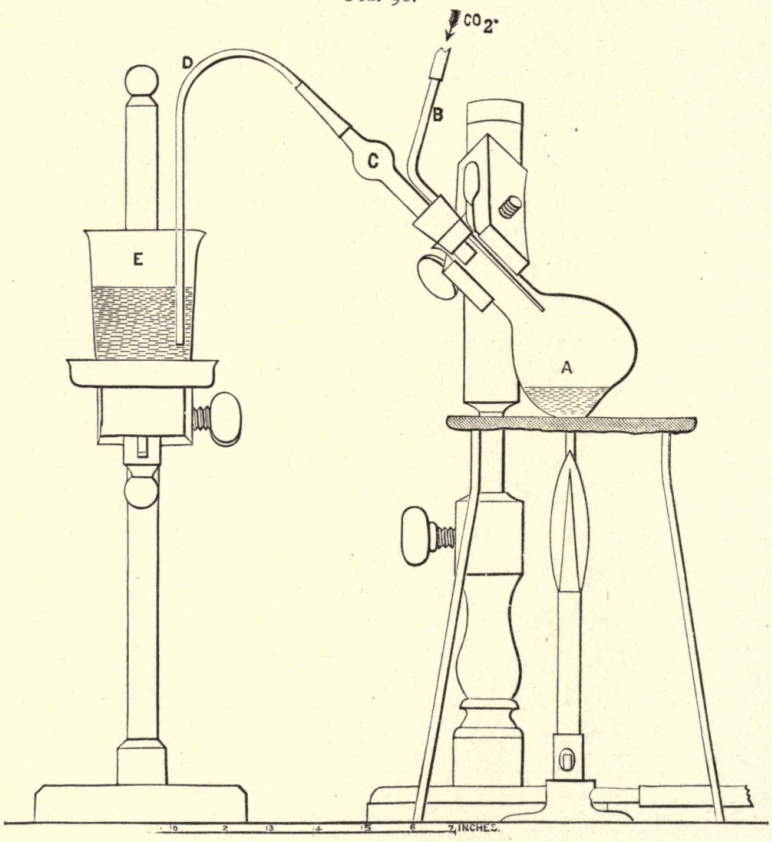
To prepare the solutions, therefore, dissolve the above weights, or multiples of them, in pure distilled water, allow the solution to stand for some little time, filter through asbestos, and dilute to the proper volume. Mix thoroughly by shaking in the bottle, and standardize as above directed. The solutions should be kept in glass-stoppered bottles in a dark closet, and the bottles should be well shaken whenever the solution is used.

DETERMINATION OF IRON EXISTING AS FERROUS OXIDE.

Many iron ores contain iron in the state of ferrous oxide, and this may be either soluble or insoluble in hydrochloric acid. To determine the ferrous oxide soluble in hydrochloric acid, weigh 1 gramme of the finely ground ore into the flask A, Fig. 96, of about 100 c.c.

capacity. Close the flask with a rubber stopper fitted with the two glass tubes B and C, and place it in the position shown in the sketch. Connect the tube C by means of a piece of rubber tubing with the bent tube D dipping below the surface of the water in the beaker E. Pass a current of carbonic acid through the tube B until all the air is ex-

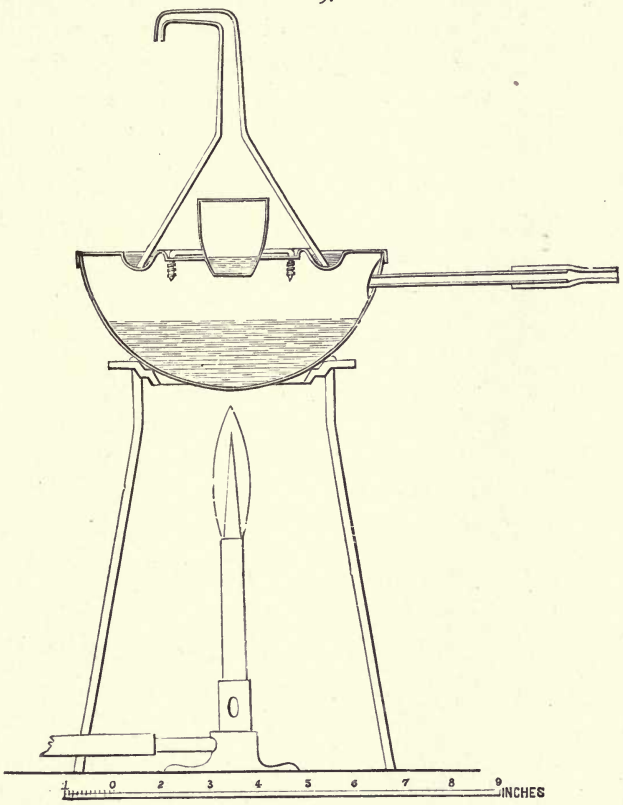
FIG. 96.



pelled, then remove for a moment the rubber tube connecting B with the source of carbonic acid, and by means of a small funnel and rubber tube introduce into the flask A, through B, from 10 to 12 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid, and establish the current of carbonic acid as before. Heat the flask carefully, and when the ore is entirely decomposed, or the

hydrochloric acid ceases to exert any further action on it, remove the source of heat, stop the current of carbonic acid for a moment, cool the flask with the hand, and allow the partial vacuum thus formed to draw the water from E back into A. Turn on the current of carbonic acid again, place a dish of cold water under the flask A, and allow the solution

FIG. 97.



to cool. Dissolve in a small flask 3 grammes of metallic zinc in 10 or 15 c.c. sulphuric acid, diluted with the proper quantity of water, cool it, and have it ready to pour into the titrating-dish by the time the solution in the flask A is cool. Wash the solution of the ore from the flask A into the dish, add the zinc solution, dilute to 1 litre, and titrate with a standard solution. Subtract from the burette reading the proper

correction, calculate the percentage of iron, divide by 7, and multiply by 9. The result is the percentage of ferrous oxide in the ore soluble in hydrochloric acid. Allow the solution in the dish to stand for a few minutes, when all the undecomposed particles of ore will settle. Draw off the greater part of the clear supernatant fluid with a siphon, wash the sediment into a beaker with a jet of cold water, filter on a thin felt * in a Gooch crucible, and wash the sediment on the felt with cold water. Transfer the felt and sediment to a platinum crucible, pour into the crucible from 5 to 10 c.c. of hydrochloric acid and about half the quantity of hydrofluoric acid, cover the crucible, and place it in the water-bath shown in Fig. 97. The crucible rests on a platinum triangle fixed over the hole in the centre of the top of the bath. Around this hole is a groove in which a funnel stands as shown in the cut, while the water in the groove forms a tight joint.† Pass a current of carbonic acid or coal-gas through the tube in the side of the bath, as figured in the cut, to exclude the air, and heat the bath until the residue and felt are completely dissolved. Wash the crucible out into the titrating-dish into which have been poured just previously 3 grammes of zinc dissolved in sulphuric acid and enough cold water to make the solution up to nearly 1 litre. Titrate, and calculate the amount of ferrous oxide as before.

Of course separate portions of the ore may be used to determine the ferrous oxide soluble and insoluble in hydrochloric acid, but it is more troublesome, and experience has shown that it is no more accurate, and in some cases less accurate, than the method just described.

The total ferrous oxide may also be determined in one operation by treating 1 gramme of the ore direct in the crucible with 20 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 20 c.c. hydrofluoric acid, but it is often difficult to get the ore perfectly dissolved even by prolonged heating in the bath, and the ore must be ground very fine in the agate mortar. It is necessary to remove the funnel from time to time, raise the lid of the crucible, and stir the contents with a platinum wire.

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* The asbestos of which the felt is made must be free from ferrous oxide.

† Avery, Chem. News, xix. 270; Wilbur and Whittlesay, Crook's Select Methods, p. 133.

When the ore is completely decomposed by hydrochloric acid, or when the portion undecomposed contains no ferrous oxide, the treatment of the residue is unnecessary.

When an ore contains much organic matter, an accurate determination of ferrous oxide is often impossible, as the solution of the ore in hydrochloric acid reduces some of the ferric salt.

DETERMINATION OF SULPHUR.

Sulphur exists in two conditions in iron ores, as sulphur in the form of sulphides and as sulphuric acid in the form of sulphates. To determine the total sulphur, weigh 1 gramme of the finely ground ore into a large platinum crucible, add to it 10 grammes of sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate (less than 1 gramme *). Mix thoroughly with a platinum wire, and heat carefully over a large alcohol lamp until the mass appears perfectly liquid and in a tranquil state of fusion. Run the fusion well up on the sides of the crucible, allow it to cool, and treat it in the crucible with boiling water. Pour the liquid into a tall, narrow beaker, treat the crucible again with boiling water, and repeat the operation until all the sodium salts are dissolved and nothing remains in the crucible except the unavoidable stains. Stir the liquid in the beaker well and allow the iron oxide to settle. If the solution is colored red or green, it is proof of the presence of manganese in the ore; add a few drops of alcohol, which will precipitate the manganese as oxide, leaving the solution colorless unless the ore contains chromium, in which case the solution will be yellowish. Decant the supernatant liquid on a small filter, allowing the filtrate to run into a No. 4 beaker, fill the small beaker nearly full of hot water, stir well, and allow to settle. Decant again on the filter, and repeat the operation once more. Acidulate the collected filtrates with hydrochloric acid (about 20 c.c. will be required), evaporate to dryness in the air-bath, redissolve in water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid,

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* See pages 46 and 48. It is well to make a blank determination, using the same amounts of sodium carbonate, potassium nitrate, and hydrochloric acid, applying the amount of barium sulphate found as a correction.

filter into a No. 3 beaker, heat the filtrate to boiling, and add 10 c.c. of a boiling solution of barium chloride.* Allow to stand for some hours, filter on a Gooch crucible or on a small ashless filter, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate, which multiplied by .1376 gives the weight of sulphur. The insoluble portion from the aqueous solution of the fusion may be used to determine the total iron in the ore, and is very convenient for this purpose in ores difficult to dissolve. Pour into the crucible in which the fusion was made about 10 c.c. of hydrochloric acid, place the lid on the crucible, and warm slightly to dissolve the adhering oxides, dilute with an equal bulk of water, and pour it on the small filter through which the aqueous solution was decanted, allowing it to run into the beaker which contains the residue of iron oxide, etc. Wash out the crucible, pouring the washings on the filter, and wash the filter free from ferric chloride with a jet of cold water. Evaporate the solution in the beaker to dryness, redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and transfer the solution of ferric chloride, the silica, etc., to one of the small flasks, deoxidize, and titrate as directed.

The sulphur which exists as sulphuric acid in an iron ore is usually combined with either calcium or barium: as calcium sulphate or of any of the other alkaline earths except barium, of the alkalies, or of the metals, it is soluble in hydrochloric acid; as barium sulphate it is practically insoluble. We may, therefore, determine the soluble sulphates as follows. Boil 10 grammes of the ore with 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 60 c.c. water, filter from the mass of the undissolved ore, evaporate the filtrate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid and water (1 to 2), filter into a No. 2 beaker, nearly neutralize by ammonia, heat to boiling, and precipitate by barium chloride solution. Filter and wash the precipitate, ignite and weigh as barium sulphate, which contains 34.352 per cent. sulphuric anhydride.

To determine the sulphuric acid which exists as barium sulphate, treat 10 grammes of the ore with 50 c.c. hydrochloric acid until the ore appears to be decomposed. Evaporate to dryness, redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid (1 to 3), dilute, filter, and wash the insoluble matter thoroughly. Ignite and fuse the insoluble matter with sodium carbonate, treat the fused mass

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* See page 51.

with hot water, and filter. In the filtrate is the sulphuric acid as sodium sulphate, while the barium remains on the filter as barium carbonate. It is safer to calculate the barium sulphate from the amount of barium rather than from the amount of sulphuric acid, as the ore may contain sulphides (pyrites, etc.) which are not decomposed by hydrochloric acid, but are decomposed and partly oxidized by fusion with sodium carbonate. The other forms of barium besides the sulphate (silicate and carbonate) are readily decomposed by hydrochloric acid, and are not likely to be found with the barium in the insoluble residue. It is, of course, possible to suppose the coexistence of barium silicate or carbonate and of calcium sulphate in an ore, and the consequent formation of barium sulphate when the ore is decomposed by hydrochloric acid; but, as the soluble sulphuric acid is determined in one operation and the insoluble in another,* the total amount of sulphuric acid existing as such is determined and the object of the analysis attained. To determine the barium, then, treat the insoluble matter obtained by the filtration of the aqueous solution of the fusion by dilute hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness to render the silica insoluble, redissolve in water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter into a No. 2 beaker, heat the filtrate to boiling, and add a few drops of sulphuric acid diluted with a little water. Allow the precipitate to settle, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate, from which weight calculate the amount of sulphuric anhydride in the ore insoluble in hydrochloric acid. To find the amount of sulphur existing as sulphides, subtract from the total sulphur the amount of sulphur in the sulphuric anhydride found as sulphates.

DETERMINATION OF PHOSPHORIC ACID.

Treat 5 or 10 grammes of the finely ground ore in 30 or 60 c.c. hydrochloric acid. (With low phosphorus ores use 10 grammes; with others, 5 grammes.) When the ore is decomposed, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in 20 or 40 c.c. hydrochloric acid, dilute, filter, and proceed exactly as

* The insoluble matter from the treatment of 10 grammes of the ore with hydrochloric acid for the determination of soluble sulphates (page 238) may be used to determine the barium sulphate.

directed in the determination of phosphorus in iron and steel (page 80 *et seq.*). The weight of the magnesium pyrophosphate multiplied by .63788 gives the weight of the phosphoric acid. The weight of the ammonium phospho-molybdate multiplied by .03735 gives the weight of the phosphoric acid.

Titanic acid is very generally found associated with iron ores, and may be regarded as one of the usual constituents. As mentioned on page 85, its presence, if overlooked, may lead to serious errors in the determination of phosphoric acid. When an ore contains much titanic acid it may readily be recognized by the peculiar milky appearance of the solution when it is diluted preparatory to filtering off the insoluble matter, and by the strong tendency it shows to run through the filter as soon as the attempt is made to wash the insoluble matter with water. Smaller quantities of titanic acid may be recognized by the clouding of the solution when it is deoxidized by ammonium bisulphite, as noted on page 88. In the latter case, however, this clouding may be caused by the formation of barium sulphate when the ore contains the latter element in the form of carbonate or silicate. Under these circumstances silica in the solution may also cause a cloud which closely resembles that of titanic acid, while barium sulphate may readily be distinguished from either by its granular appearance and its tendency to settle to the bottom of the beaker.

The insoluble residue from the solution of the ore in hydrochloric acid should, therefore, be treated to recover any phosphoric acid which may have remained insoluble in combination with titanic acid.* An additional test for the presence of titanic acid, and one that rarely fails even with very small amounts, is to dissolve the insoluble matter from the aqueous solution of the fusion of the residue from the hydrofluoric acid and sulphuric acid treatment of the insoluble portion of the ore in dilute hydrochloric acid, allowing it to run into a test-tube and adding metallic

* When hydrofluoric acid is not available, fuse the residue with sodium carbonate, treat the fused mass with hot water, filter, acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dryness to render the silica insoluble. Redissolve in water with a little hydrochloric acid, filter, add a little ferric chloride, and make a separate acetate precipitation in this portion, adding the solution to the solution of the main acetate precipitation.

zinc. When titanic acid is present the solution first becomes colorless, then pink or purple, and finally blue from the formation of titanic oxide. The simplest way is to proceed as directed on pages 87 and 88 when using the acetate method, or on page 92 when using the molybdate method. These methods are not practicable, however, when the ore contains a very large amount of titanic acid, and recourse must be had to the method described on page 85, involving the fusion of the acetate precipitate and the residue from the treatment of the insoluble matter with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate. At any rate, it is best to pursue this method whenever titanic acid is also to be determined, as the same portion can be used for the estimation of both titanic acid and phosphoric acid, and the aggregate labor involved is much lessened.

DETERMINATION OF TITANIC ACID.

The determination of titanic acid has always presented many difficulties, and its separation from a large amount of ferric oxide and alumina has been far from satisfactory, besides being most tedious. The principal sources of error in the estimation of titanic acid in iron ores are the tendency of phosphoric acid to prevent the precipitation of titanic acid by boiling when its sulphuric acid solution contains phosphoric acid and ferrous sulphate, and the liability of alumina to separate out with the titanic acid when the latter is precipitated under the circumstances above mentioned. There is also a mechanical difficulty, caused by the adhesion of the precipitated titanic acid to the bottom and sides of the beaker, from which it can sometimes be removed only by boiling with a strong solution of caustic potash. The admirable series of experiments carried out by Dr. Gooch * on the separation of aluminum and titanium suggests a method which renders the determination of titanic acid in iron ores much less troublesome, while adding greatly to the accuracy of the results. In carrying out the details of the method, dissolve 5 or 10 grammes of the ore in hydrochloric acid, and proceed exactly as in the determination of phos-

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* Proceedings Am. Acad. Arts and Sciences, New Series, xii. 435.

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phoric acid, by fusing the residue from the treatment of the insoluble matter by hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids and the acetate precipitate with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate,* and then complete the operation exactly as described in the determination of titanium in pig-iron.†

The essential points in this method are: 1. Separation of the titanic acid from the mass of ferric oxide by ammonium acetate in the deoxidized solution. 2. Separation from all the phosphoric acid and the greater part of the alumina by fusion with sodium carbonate, by which means a sodium titanate insoluble in water is formed, and at the same time sodium phosphate and aluminate soluble in that menstruum. 3. Separation of the last traces of alumina from the ferric oxide, lime, etc., by precipitating the titanic acid in the thoroughly deoxidized solution in the presence of a large excess of acetic acid and some sulphurous acid, the sulphuric acid being all in the form of sodium sulphate. The addition of a large excess of sodium acetate, by which this latter condition is effected, converts all the sulphate into acetates, and precipitates the titanic acid almost instantaneously as a hydrate, which is flocculent, settles quickly, shows no tendency to run through the filter, and is washed with the greatest ease. It sometimes happens that a little ferrous oxide is precipitated with the titanic acid, and the latter, after ignition, appears discolored; in this case fuse with a little sodium carbonate, add sulphuric acid to the cold fused mass, dissolve, and repeat the precipitation with sodium acetate in the presence of sulphurous and acetic acids exactly as in the first instance.

A number of experiments covering all the points involved in this method show it to be extremely accurate and entirely trustworthy.

DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE.

When manganese alone is to be determined in an ore, any one of the methods described under the determination of manganese in iron and steel (page 108) may be used. The most convenient, however, is Ford's method

* See page 47. † See page 184.

with the modifications necessary in the analysis of pig-iron (page 115). The only change requisite is to evaporate the solution in hydrochloric acid to dryness to render silica insoluble before filtering off the insoluble matter.

In the determination of manganese in high grade manganese ores it is best to use a one-tenth factor weight (0.3874 gramme) of the sample, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid, and filter off the insoluble matter. Ignite the insoluble matter in a platinum crucible, fuse with a little sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid and filter into the main solution. Or, treat the ignited insoluble matter with sulphuric and hydrofluoric acids, drive off the hydrofluoric and the excess of sulphuric, cool, add water and a little hydrochloric acid, and heat until the residue dissolves, then add the solution to the main solution of the ore.

Evaporate the main solution until it is syrupy, add an excess of strong nitric acid and evaporate off the hydrochloric acid. Precipitate by potassium chlorate in the usual way and filter through asbestos. Wash the precipitate thoroughly with cold water to get rid of the calcium nitrate, which, being practically insoluble in strong nitric acid, will remain with the precipitated manganese dioxide unless this precaution be observed. There is no danger of dissolving the manganese dioxide by this treatment.

Proceed with the determination as directed on page 113. Each milligramme of manganese pyrophosphate is a tenth of one per cent. of manganese in the ore.

In using the acetate method it is, of course, necessary that all the iron should be in the form of ferric chloride, and also that there should be no reducing agent in the solution. Even a very small amount of ferrous chloride will cause the formation of a "brick-dust" precipitate, which cannot be kept from passing the filter while some of the iron remains dissolved in the acetate solution. When, therefore, the ore contains ferrous oxide, it should be oxidized by nitric acid or potassium chlorate, and the excess of the oxidizing agent removed by evaporation with hydrochloric acid.

Volhard's Method applied to High Grade Manganese Ores.

Volhard's is the most satisfactory volumetric method for high grade manganese ores. Dissolve 1 gramme of the ore in a small beaker in hydrochloric acid, heat until the chlorine is all driven off, wash out into a platinum dish (Fig. 36), and add 5 c.c. strong sulphuric acid and a little hydrofluoric acid. Evaporate to dryness and heat until the sulphuric acid begins to volatilize. Cool, dissolve in water, transfer to a 300 c.c. flask, and proceed as directed on page 116, except that 100 c.c. of the filtered solution represents one-third if a gramme of the ore is used.

It is necessary to heat the solution in the flask after there appears to be a slight excess of permanganate. This will make the precipitate settle rapidly and generally show the necessity for adding more permanganate.

A large number of comparative analyses have shown that it is necessary to add one one-hundredth of the amount obtained to get the true percentage of manganese; in other words, the results obtained are always one one-hundredth too low.

For instance, if by calculation the ore contains 50 per cent. of manganese by this method, the true result is 50.5 per cent.

Pattinson's Method.*

Dissolve in hydrochloric acid such a quantity of the sample as shall contain not more than .25 gramme of manganese. In high manganese ores add enough ferric chloride to the solution to make the iron and manganese contents about equal. Add calcium carbonate to the solution until it is slightly red in color and acidulate by adding hydrochloric acid until the red color disappears. Add sufficient zinc chloride in solution to give .5 gramme metallic zinc. Heat to boiling, dilute with boiling water to 300 c.c., and add 60 c.c. of a solution of calcium hypochlorite containing 33 grammes to the litre. To the solution of hypochlorite, just before using, add enough hydrochloric acid to give it a faint greenish tinge after agitation.

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* Society of Chemical Industry, vol. x. No. 4.

Finally add 3 grammes of calcium carbonate diffused in 15 c.c. of boiling water, and, after stirring well, 2 c.c. of methyl alcohol.

Filter on a large filter and wash with water at 65° C. until a strip of iodized starch paper gives no indication of chlorine.

Measure into a beaker 100 c.c. of a carefully standardized strongly acid solution of ferrous sulphate, containing 10 grammes of iron to the litre, and place the precipitate and filter in it. When the precipitate has dissolved add cold water and determine the excess of ferrous sulphate by a standard solution of potassium bichromate.

When the ore contains much organic matter it should be filtered off before attempting to oxidize the ferrous salt, as it is quite impossible in some cases to destroy the organic matter, and resolution of the evaporated mass in hydrochloric acid causes a reduction of some of the ferric salt. See also the Bismuthate method, page 121.

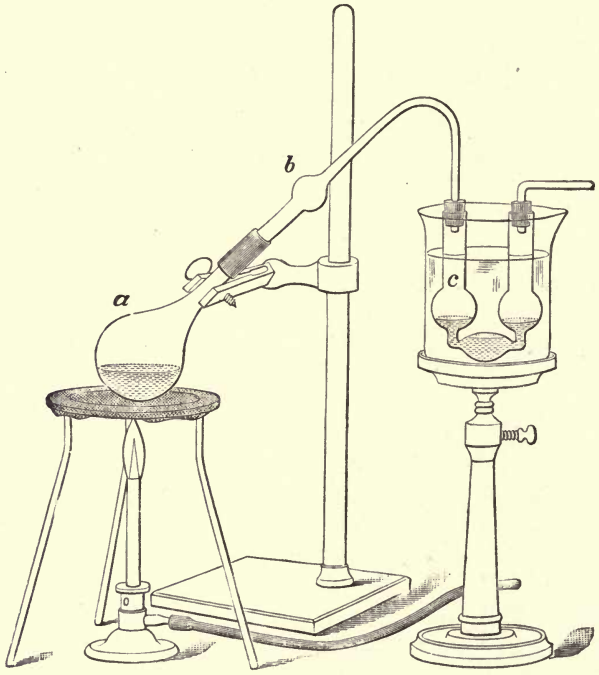
DETERMINATION OF MANGANESE DIOXIDE.

Many manganiferous iron ores contain manganese in a higher state of oxidation than the protoxide, and the determination of the excess of oxygen is often necessary. All ores of this character when treated with hydrochloric acid evolve chlorine gas, which is easily recognized by its yellowish green color and peculiarly irritating odor. The reaction by which chlorine is liberated is $MnO_2 + 4HCl = MnCl_2 + 2H_2O + 2Cl$, or each molecule of manganese dioxide = 87 corresponds to 2 molecules of chlorine = 70.90. This reaction is the basis of Bunsen's method for the estimation of the amount of manganese dioxide in manganese ores, which consists in driving the liberated chlorine into a solution of potassium iodide, and determining the amount of iodine set free by starch and hyposulphite solution. When the method given on page 68 for determining sulphur in steel is in use, the solutions employed in carrying out that method (with the exception of the iodine in potassium iodide) can be used in this, or they may be prepared by the directions there given, for use in this method.

Bunsen's Method.

Weigh from .5 gramme to 1 gramme of the finely ground ore and place it in the flask *a*, Fig. 98, pour in 10 c.c. strong hydrochloric acid, connect the bent tube *b* quickly by means of a piece of rubber tubing, and heat the flask gently at first and finally to boiling to drive all the chlorine over into the tube *c*, which contains a strong solution of pure potassium iodide free from iodate. This tube is placed in ice-water. When all the chlorine

FIG. 98.



has been expelled from the flask *a* and absorbed in *c*, detach the latter, wash its contents into a large dish, add a little starch solution, and run in the hyposulphite until the blue color just vanishes. If, as in the example given on page 71, 1 c.c. of the hyposulphite solution is equal to .01267 gramme of iodine, and 1 equivalent of chlorine = 35.45 replaces 1 equivalent of iodine = 126.85 in the potassium iodide, 1 c.c. of the hyposulphite

solution would be equal to (126.85 : 35.45 : : .01267 : .003541) .003541 gramme of chlorine; and, as 1 equivalent of manganese dioxide = 87 is equal to 2 equivalents of chlorine = 70.90, 1 c.c. of the hyposulphite would be equal to (70.90 : 87 : : .003541 : .004345) .004345 gramme manganese dioxide.

Determination by Ferrous Sulphate.

In most laboratories, however, it is generally more convenient to estimate the amount of manganese dioxide in an ore by determining its oxidizing power on a solution of ferrous salt. The reaction is $2FeSO_4 + MnO_2 + 2H_2SO_4 = Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + MnSO_4 + 2H_2O$, or 2 equivalents of iron = 112 are equal to 1 equivalent of manganese dioxide = 87. Grind in an agate or Wedgwood mortar about 10 or 15 grammes of ferrous sulphate or ferrous-ammonium sulphate, and weigh out two portions, one of 2 grammes and one of from 3 to 8 grammes, according to the quality of the manganese ore. One gramme of pure manganese dioxide would oxidize 1.2874 grammes of iron, equal to nearly 6.5 grammes of ferrous sulphate, or more than 9 grammes of ferrous-ammonium sulphate. Transfer the 2-gramme portion to the dish, add a large amount of water and about 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid, and pour in 3 grammes of zinc dissolved in 10 c.c. sulphuric acid diluted with enough water to dissolve the zinc sulphate completely. Titrate with the standard solution of potassium permanganate or bichromate in the usual way, and calculate the amount of iron in 1 gramme of the ferrous salt used. Weigh 1 gramme of the finely ground ore, transfer to the flask A (Fig. 96, page 234), and add to it the larger portion of the ferrous salt previously weighed out. Connect the flask as shown, and pass in a current of carbonic acid until the air has been driven out. Now pour into the flask A, by means of a small funnel attached to B, 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 30 c.c. water, reconnect the carbonic acid apparatus, and while the current of carbonic acid is passing dissolve the ore, heating the flask, and shaking it from time to time as necessary. When the ore is all decomposed, stop the current of carbonic acid for a moment, remove the light, and allow the water in E to flow back into the flask A. Transfer the solution to the dish, add 3 grammes zinc dissolved in sulphuric acid, and

titrate with the standard solution. From the titration of the ferrous salt calculate the amount of iron in the amount used in the solution of the ore, and subtract from this the amount found by this last titration; the difference is the weight of iron oxidized by the chlorine liberated from the manganese dioxide in the ore. Then, as 112 parts of iron correspond to 87 parts of manganese dioxide, multiply the above weight of iron by 87 and divide by 112, and the result is the weight of manganese dioxide in the ore.

The total manganese having been determined by one of the methods previously given, subtract from it the amount of manganese as manganese dioxide (found by multiplying the weight of manganese dioxide by .63218), and calculate the difference to manganous oxide by multiplying by 1.2909.

DETERMINATION OF SILICA, ALUMINA, LIME, MAGNESIA, MANGANESE OXIDE, AND BARYTA.

Treatment of iron ores with hydrochloric acid leaves a residue which only in very rare instances consists of silica alone, being usually silicates of aluminum, calcium, and magnesium, mixed with an excess of silica. These silicates are often much more complicated, and contain, besides the substances enumerated above, ferrous oxide, soda, potash, and manganese oxide. With these silicates are occasionally found titanic acid, titaniferous iron, chrome iron ore, barium sulphate, and ferrous sulphide, besides organic matter, and sometimes graphite. As this residue must be fused with sodium carbonate in order to decompose it, and the introduction of sodium salts into the main solution is not desirable, the two portions of the ore (the soluble and the insoluble in hydrochloric acid) should be analyzed separately.

Place 1 gramme of ore in a No. 1 beaker, add 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid, cover with a watch-glass, and digest at a gentle heat until the ore appears to be quite decomposed, add a few drops of nitric acid, heat until the action has ceased, and then wash off the cover with a fine jet of water and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dry-

ness a second time to render all the silica insoluble. Redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 30 c.c. water, filter, transfer all the residue to the filter (a small ashless filter) with a fine jet of cold water, using a "policeman" to detach any adhering particles from the beaker, and wash the filter with a little hydrochloric acid and plenty of cold water. Allow the filtrate and washings to run into a No. 5 beaker, and ignite and weigh the residue as "Insoluble Silicious Matter."

Add to the insoluble matter in the crucible about ten times its weight of pure dry sodium carbonate and fuse it. Run the fusion well up on the sides of the crucible, cool, and dissolve in hot water. Transfer to a platinum dish, dissolve any particles adhering to the crucible in hydrochloric acid, and add this to the solution in the dish. Acidulate with hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, moisten with hydrochloric acid and water, evaporate to dryness a second time to render silica insoluble, then pour into the dish 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 15 c.c. water, and stand it in a warm place for some time. Dilute with about 20 c.c. water, filter on a small ashless filter, wash well with hot water, receiving the filtrate and washings in a small beaker, dry, ignite, and weigh. Treat the ignited precipitate with hydrofluoric acid and a drop or two of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh again. The difference between the two weights is silica. If the difference between the last weight and the weight of the empty crucible is more than a milligramme or two, the residue must be examined and its nature determined. This residue may consist of titanic acid, barium sulphate, alumina, or sodium sulphate (from imperfect washing of the silica). If it is titanic acid or alumina, the weight must be added to the weights of the alumina, etc.

Return the filtrate from the silica to the dish in which it was previously contained, heat to boiling, add a few drops of bromine-water and an excess of ammonia, boil until it smells but faintly of ammonia, filter on a small ashless filter, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as alumina, etc. Besides alumina this precipitate may contain titanic acid, chromium sesquioxide, ferric oxide, manganous oxide, and phosphoric acid.

Return the filtrate from this precipitate to the dish, evaporate down to about 100 c.c., add ammonium oxalate and ammonia, boil for a few

minutes, allow the precipitate to settle, filter on a small ashless filter, ignite finally for five minutes over a blast-lamp, and weigh as lime. To the filtrate from the lime add microcosmic salt and about one-third the volume of the solution of ammonia, cool in ice-water, stir vigorously several times, and allow to stand overnight so that the precipitated ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate may settle properly, filter, wash with water containing one-third its volume of ammonia and about 100 grammes of ammonium nitrate to the litre, ignite carefully, and weigh. Dissolve the precipitate in the crucible in a little water containing from 5 to 10 drops hydrochloric acid, filter through a small ashless filter, which dry, ignite, and weigh. The difference between the two weights is magnesium pyrophosphate, which, multiplied by .36212, gives the weight of magnesia.

When barium has been shown to exist in the ore, as noted on page 248, heat the filtrate from the "Insoluble Silicious Matter" to boiling, add a few drops of sulphuric acid, boil for a few minutes to allow the precipitate to settle, filter on a small ashless filter, allowing the filtrate and washings to run into a No. 5 beaker, dry, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate, which, multiplied by .65648, gives the weight of barium oxide.

To the cold filtrate from the barium sulphate add ammonia until the solution is nearly neutralized, then add a solution of ammonium carbonate until a slight permanent precipitate is formed which fails to dissolve after vigorous stirring, and redissolve this by the careful addition of hydrochloric acid, drop by drop, stirring well, and allowing the solution to stand for a short time after each addition of hydrochloric acid. As soon as the solution clears, add a solution of ammonium acetate, made by slightly acidulating 5 c.c. of ammonia by acetic acid, dilute to about 600 c.c. with boiling water, and boil for a few minutes. Allow the precipitate to settle, decant the clear liquid through a large washed filter, pour the precipitate on the filter, and wash it two or three times with boiling water. With the aid of a platinum spatula return the precipitate to the beaker in which the precipitation was made, dissolving any portion remaining on the filter or adhering to the spatula in dilute hydrochloric acid, allowing the acid to run into the beaker containing the precipitate. Wash the filter thoroughly with

cold water, and evaporate the solution and washings to dryness. Redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid, filter into a large platinum dish, dilute with hot water,* heat to boiling, and add a slight excess of ammonia. Boil for a few minutes to make the precipitate granular and expel the excess of ammonia, and filter on an ashless filter (using the filter-pump and cone, page 27, with very slight pressure, if practicable). Dissolve any particles of the precipitate adhering to the dish in a very few drops of hydrochloric acid, heating the bottom of the dish slightly, wash off the rod and cover, and wash down the sides of the dish with hot water, add a slight excess of ammonia, heat gently until the precipitate of ferric hydrate separates, wash this onto the filter, and wash the precipitate thoroughly with hot water. Dry the filter and precipitate carefully, transfer the latter to a weighed crucible, burn the filter in a wire, add the ash to the precipitate, and heat the crucible, keeping it carefully covered, and raising the heat very gradually to expel the last traces of moisture from the precipitate of ferric hydrate. Finally heat the crucible to bright redness, and then to the highest temperature of the blast-lamp for from five to ten minutes. Cool, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide + alumina + phosphoric acid (+ titanic acid + chromic oxide + arsenic acid).

Add the filtrate and washings from the acetate precipitation to those from the precipitation by ammonia, evaporate down to about 200 c.c. in a platinum dish, filter off any slight precipitate of ferric oxide (which must be ignited, weighed, and the weight added to that of the ferric oxide, etc.), add from 20 to 30 drops of acetic acid, heat to boiling, and pass a current of hydrogen sulphide through the solution for fifteen or twenty minutes, keeping the solution hot during the passage of the gas. Filter off the precipitated copper, zinc, nickel, and cobalt sulphides, wash with hydrogen sulphide water containing a little free acetic acid, and to the filtrate add

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* The distilled water used in the complete analysis of iron ores should never be heated in glass vessels for any length of time, as glass is sensibly attacked by it. An experiment in which distilled water free from residue was heated for twelve hours in a Bohemian flask showed that the water dissolved 52 milligrammes of solid matter to the litre, of which 26 milligrammes were silica. The water should always be heated in platinum or porcelain dishes, or in tin-lined copper flasks. For convenience, the water may be poured into the washing-flasks for immediate use.

excess of ammonia and ammonium sulphide. Allow the precipitated manganese sulphide to settle, decant the clear, supernatant liquid through a filter, but before pouring the precipitate on the filter remove the beaker containing the filtrate and substitute a clean beaker, as the precipitate is almost certain at first to run through the filter. Wash the precipitate and filter with water containing a little ammonium sulphide, add the clear filtrate and washings together, and stand them aside. Dissolve the precipitate of manganese sulphide on the filter in dilute hydrochloric acid, and wash the filter thoroughly with hot water, receiving the solution and washings in a small beaker. Heat to boiling to expel hydrogen sulphide, and, when the excess is driven off, destroy the last traces with a little bromine-water, transfer the solution to a platinum dish, and precipitate by microcosmic salt and ammonia as directed on page 110. Filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as manganese pyrophosphate, which, multiplied by .50011, gives the weight of manganous oxide.

Acidulate the filtrate from the manganese sulphide with hydrochloric acid, boil off all the hydrogen sulphide, filter from the sulphur deposited by this operation into a platinum dish, add an excess of ammonia and ammonium oxalate, filter, ignite, and heat at the highest temperature of the blast-lamp for fifteen minutes, cool, and weigh as lime.

Precipitate the magnesia in the filtrate as directed on page 250, and determine the weight of magnesium pyrophosphate, which, multiplied by .36212, gives the weight of magnesia.

By adding the elements determined in the insoluble portion to the similar ones in the soluble portion, we get the total amounts of each in the ore. Thus, we have from the above analysis silica, ferric oxide + alumina + phosphoric acid + chromic oxide + titanic acid + arsenic acid, manganese oxide, lime, and magnesia, and it becomes, of course, necessary to calculate properly the iron in its different states of oxidation and to determine the amount of alumina in the ore. It is much more accurate to determine in separate portions of the ore the amounts of phosphoric acid, arsenic acid, chromic oxide, ferric oxide, and titanic acid than to attempt to make the separation in the precipitate obtained in this portion. Therefore, knowing the amounts of these substances, the ferric

oxide from the volumetric determination of iron, as previously described, and the amount of each of the others as found by one of the methods given, add together the weights of the ferric oxide, the phosphoric acid, the chromic oxide, the titanic acid, and the arsenic acid in one gramme of the ore, and subtract the sum from the weight of the precipitate obtained in the above analysis, the result is the weight of alumina in one gramme of the ore.

Iron may exist in an ore in several conditions, as Fe_2O_3, as FeO, as FeS_2, as $FeAs_2$, etc. While it may not always be possible to determine the exact conditions in which it exists, the rule usually followed is, after subtracting from the sulphur existing as sulphides (page 237) the amount necessary to form copper sulphide, nickel sulphide, etc., to calculate the remainder as FeS_2 by multiplying the weight of sulphur by 1.87336. The weight of sulphur subtracted from this gives the weight of iron in the FeS_2. Now from the weight of $FeAs_2$ subtract the weight of arsenic, and the result is the weight of iron existing as iron in the $FeAs_2$.* Add the iron in the FeS_2 to the iron in the $FeAs_2$, and subtract this weight from the iron found as ferrous oxide, the remainder calculated to ferrous oxide is the amount of ferrous oxide in the ore. Subtract the total amount of iron found originally by titration to exist as ferrous oxide from the total iron found in the ore, and calculate the remainder to ferric oxide.

When an iron ore contains only a very small amount of manganese, the acetate separation may be omitted in the method as given above, which simplifies and shortens the operation very materially. In this event transfer the filtrate from the insoluble silicious matter at once to a large platinum dish, heat to boiling, add a few c.c. of bromine-water and then excess of ammonia, boil, filter the ferric oxide, etc., on an ashless filter, dry, ignite, and weigh, as described above. The manganese will be in the precipitate after ignition as manganoso-manganic oxide, and the amount calculated from the determination of manganese made in a separate portion of the ore must be subtracted from the weight of the above precipitate in calculating the amount of alumina.

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* All the weights, of course, are calculated to one gramme of ore.

The lime and magnesia are determined in the filtrate from the ferric oxide, etc., provided, of course, that the ore contains only minute amounts of nickel, copper, etc.

The same general method described above is applicable when the ore contains quite a large amount of titanic acid, so much, in fact, as to cause the cloudiness in the filtrate from the insoluble silicious matter, as noted on page 240. Whenever an acetate separation is necessary in an ore of this character, the precipitate must be filtered on an ashless filter, and this, as well as the filter containing any insoluble matter from the resolution of the acetate precipitate, must be ignited and examined for titanic acid by treating the residue with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, heating to redness, fusing with sodium carbonate, dissolving in hydrochloric acid and water, and precipitating by ammonia. The precipitate so obtained is to be filtered, ignited, and the weight added to that of the ferric oxide, etc. Ilmenite even, when very finely ground in an agate mortar, is frequently capable of being almost entirely decomposed by hydrochloric acid, and when this is the case it is of advantage to use this method of analysis. It may be necessary, however, under certain circumstances to decompose the ore at the start by fusing with potassium bisulphate. To carry out this method, place 1 gramme of the ore, which has been ground as fine as possible in an agate mortar, in a large platinum crucible, add 10 grammes of pure potassium bisulphate,* and heat the crucible, carefully covered, over a very low light until the bisulphate is melted. It is necessary to watch this operation most carefully, for the bisulphate has a strong tendency to boil over, and only unremitting attention on the part of the analyst will prevent the loss of the analysis. It is well at the start to stand by the crucible and raise the lid slightly at very short intervals to watch the condition and progress of the fusion. The lid should be held just over the crucible and in a horizontal position, otherwise the particles which have spirted on it from the mass in the crucible may run to the edge of the lid and, when the latter is replaced, down the outside of the crucible. Raise the heat very gradually, keeping the

* See page 49.

mass just liquid and the temperature at the point at which slight fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off when the lid is raised, until the bottom of the crucible is dull red. When the ore is completely decomposed, remove the light, take off the lid of the crucible, and incline the latter at such an angle that the fused mass may run together on one side of the crucible and as near the top as possible. Allow it to cool in this position; when cold it is easily detached from the crucible. Place the crucible and lid in a No. 4 beaker half full of cold water, and the fused mass in a little basket made of platinum gauze. Pour into the beaker enough strong aqueous solution of sulphurous acid to raise the liquid to the top of the basket, and allow the fusion to dissolve, which may require twelve hours. Wash with a jet of cold water, and remove the basket, the crucible, and the lid, stir the liquid, which should smell strongly of sulphurous acid, and allow the insoluble matter to settle. Filter on an ashless filter, wash well with cold water, dry, ignite, and weigh. Treat with hydrofluoric acid and 2 or 3 drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. The difference between the weights is silica. If any appreciable residue remains in the crucible, fuse with a little sodium carbonate, treat with sulphuric acid, and add to the main filtrate. To the main filtrate, which should be quite colorless and smell strongly of sulphurous acid, add a clear filtered solution of 20 grammes of sodium acetate and one-sixth of its volume of acetic acid (1.04 sp. gr.), heat to boiling, and boil for a few minutes. Allow the precipitate to settle, filter on an ashless filter, wash thoroughly with hot water containing one-sixth its volume of acetic acid, and finally with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as titanic acid. This precipitate, however, may not be quite pure, as small amounts of ferric oxide and alumina may be carried down with it. The best plan to pursue is to fuse with sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, filter, wash, dry, and fuse the insoluble sodium titanate, etc., with sodium carbonate, treat the cooled mass in the crucible with sulphuric acid, and precipitate and determine the titanic acid as directed above. The two filtrates from the treatment of the first precipitate of titanic acid may contain a little ferric oxide and alumina. To recover this, boil down the last filtrate until the greater part of the sulphurous acid has been driven off, add

bromine-water to oxidize the iron, acidulate the aqueous filtrate from the sodium carbonate fusion with sulphuric acid, add it to this solution, boil the united solutions down in a platinum dish to a convenient volume, and add a slight excess of ammonia. Boil the solution until it smells faintly but decidedly of ammonia, filter, and wash slightly. Redissolve the precipitate in hydrochloric acid, and reprecipitate by ammonia, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide and alumina to be added to the main precipitate. Boil the main filtrate and washings down in a large platinum dish after adding enough bromine-water to oxidize all the iron, add hydrochloric acid from time to time when necessary to keep the iron in solution, and, when reduced to a convenient bulk, nearly neutralize by ammonia, and boil. Filter, and wash the precipitate two or three times, redissolve and reprecipitate by ammonia, filter, wash, dry, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide + alumina + phosphoric acid. Fuse this precipitate for a long time and at a high temperature with sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, wash by decantation, redissolve the residue of ferric oxide, etc., in hydrochloric acid, and determine the iron by titration. The alumina is obtained by difference, the phosphoric acid being determined in a separate portion. In the filtrate from the ferric oxide + alumina + phosphoric acid determine manganese, lime, and magnesia in the usual way.

DETERMINATION OF SILICA.

When silica alone is wanted in an ore a more rapid method is sometimes desirable. In this case dissolve 1 gramme of the ore in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in dilute hydrochloric acid, filter on an ashless filter, wash, dry, ignite, and weigh the insoluble silicious matter. Treat this in the crucible with hydrofluoric acid and a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. It is evident now that if the insoluble silicious matter contains calcium, magnesium, potassium, or sodium, the loss of weight, which in the absence of these elements would represent the silica volatilized as silicon tetrafluoride, will be decreased by the amount of sulphuric acid which, uniting with these elements, remains

as a part of the residue in the crucible. It is a simple operation, however, to fuse this residue with sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, heat to boiling, add solution of barium chloride and filter off, and weigh the precipitated barium sulphate. This being accomplished, calculate the amount of sulphuric anhydride, and add its weight to the loss by volatilization. The result is the weight of silica. When the ore contains appreciable amounts of barium sulphate this method is not admissible.

Separation of Alumina from Ferric Oxide.

Besides the indirect method for determining alumina, it is sometimes necessary or convenient to make a direct separation. The method usually taken, the iron and alumina being in solution in hydrochloric acid, is as follows. Add to the solution about five times the weight of the oxides, of citric acid (tartaric acid may be used, but, as it is liable to contain alumina, citric acid is preferable) and excess of ammonia. If the solution remains clear, heat to boiling, and add a fresh solution of ammonium sulphide until all the iron is precipitated. If the solution does not remain clear on the addition of ammonia, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, add more citric acid, and then excess of ammonia. Allow the ferrous sulphide to settle, decant the clear liquid through a washed filter, throw the precipitate on the filter, and wash it well with water containing ammonium sulphide and ammonium chloride, changing the beaker into which the washings run before each addition of wash-water, and keeping the funnel well covered with a watch-glass. Unite the filtrate and washings, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, boil until the precipitated sulphur agglomerates, filter into a platinum dish, and evaporate to dryness. Heat carefully until the ammonium chloride is volatilized and there remains in the dish a mass of carbonaceous matter from the decomposition of the citric acid. The expulsion of the last traces of water from the ammonium chloride nearly always causes loss by spirting, but the difficulty may be entirely avoided by placing the dish in one of the holes of the air-bath overnight, after having lightly coated the upper edge of the dish with paraffine or grease to prevent the ammonium chloride from creeping over the top. This long heating expels the last traces of water without the least disturbance, and the dish may at once be placed

over a Bunsen burner, and the mass in it decomposed without fear of loss. Transfer the carbonaceous matter to a crucible, wiping out the dish carefully with filter-paper, and placing these in the crucible also. Burn off the carbon in the crucible, fuse the residue with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate, treat with water, transfer to a platinum dish, dissolve any adhering particles in the crucible in hydrochloric acid, add this to the solution in the dish, with enough hydrochloric acid to acidulate it, heat to boiling after diluting, add a slight excess of ammonia, boil until the solution smells but faintly of ammonia, filter, wash thoroughly, ignite, and weigh as alumina. This precipitate will contain any phosphoric and titanic acids that may have been in the original solution. They may be separated by the methods given previously. It is liable to contain also a little iron, which is almost invariably held in solution by the ammonium sulphide.

Dissolve the precipitate of ferrous sulphide on the filter in dilute hot hydrochloric acid, allow the solution and washings to run into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, add a little nitric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in as little dilute hydrochloric acid as possible, filter into a platinum dish, dilute, precipitate by ammonia, filter, wash, dry, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide.

Rose* suggested the method based on the solubility of alumina in caustic potash or soda. When the iron and alumina are in solution, evaporate in a platinum dish until syrupy, add a strong solution of caustic soda or potash until the solution is strongly alkaline, and then add a large excess of the precipitant, and boil for ten or fifteen minutes; or, pour the nearly neutral solution of the chlorides into a boiling solution of caustic soda or potash in a platinum or silver dish, in a thin stream, stirring continually. Filter, wash with hot water, carefully acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, and precipitate the alumina by ammonia, filter, wash, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness to get rid of silica, redissolve, filter, and determine as usual. As the ferric oxide precipitated by caustic soda or potash always contains alkali,

* Chimie Anal. Quant. (French ed.), page 148.

it must be dissolved in hydrochloric acid, precipitated by ammonia, filtered, and weighed in the usual manner.

Rose also suggested fusing the finely ground ignited oxides in a silver crucible with potassium or sodium hydrate; but this method, as well as the other, is open to the objection that it is almost impossible to get caustic soda or potash that does not contain alumina, and generally there is more in the reagent than in the ore.

Rivot suggested the following method. After weighing the ignited iron and aluminum oxides, grind them very fine, weigh them, and place in a porcelain or platinum boat. Place the boat in a porcelain or platinum tube, and heat to redness in a current of hydrogen gas until no more water appears to come off. Replace the hydrogen by a stream of hydrochloric acid gas, reheat the tube, and continue the current as long as ferric chloride is given off. Remove the boat, and, if the residue is not white, repeat the operation. Weigh the remaining alumina, and calculate from the amount of the oxides used the total amount in the ore.

Rose modified this method by substituting a crucible and tube for the boat, etc. The apparatus as he used it is the same as that described for the determination of manganese as sulphide (page 112).

Wöhler suggested the method of separating iron and alumina by boiling the nearly neutral solution with an excess of sodium hyposulphite. The following modification of this method * appears to give excellent results, and has the advantage of doing away with a subsequent separation of phosphoric acid in those cases in which it has not been determined in another portion. The ferric oxide and alumina from 1 gramme of ore being in solution in hydrochloric acid, dilute to 400 or 500 c.c. with cold water, and add ammonia until the solution becomes dark red in color, but contains no precipitate. Now add 3.3 c.c. hydrochloric acid (1.2 sp. gr.) and 2 grammes sodium phosphate, dissolved in water and filtered; stir until the precipitate formed is dissolved and the solution becomes perfectly clear again. Add now 10 grammes of sodium

* Communicated to the author by Mr. S. Peters in 1879.

hyposulphite, dissolved in water and filtered if necessary, and 15 c.c. of acetic acid (1.04 sp. gr.), heat to boiling, boil fifteen minutes, filter as rapidly as possible on an ashless filter, wash thoroughly with hot water, dry, ignite in a porcelain crucible, and weigh as aluminum phosphate, which, multiplied by .41847, gives the weight of alumina. It is necessary in burning off the precipitate to raise the heat very carefully until all the carbon has been burned off, as the aluminum phosphate may fuse and make it almost impossible to burn off the carbon.

DETERMINATION OF NICKEL, COBALT, ZINC, AND MANGANESE.

For the determination of these elements use 3 grammes of ore, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, add a little nitric acid or potassium chlorate to oxidize any ferrous oxide in the ore, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate a second time if necessary to get rid of all nitric acid. As noted on page 245, when the ore contains much organic matter, dissolve in hydrochloric acid (if there is much gelatinous silica, evaporate to dryness or the filtration will be much retarded), filter, add nitric acid or potassium chlorate, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate a second time if necessary, redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 20 c.c. water, dilute, filter into a No. 6 beaker, and proceed exactly as directed for the determination of manganese in iron and steel (page 108 *et seq.*) until the precipitate by hydrogen sulphide is obtained and filtered off. Determine the manganese, if desired, in the filtrate, as directed on page 110, and calculate to manganous oxide.

Dry and ignite the precipitated sulphides of nickel, cobalt, zinc, copper, lead, etc., in a porcelain crucible, transfer to a small beaker, and dissolve in hydrochloric acid, with the addition of a drop or two of nitric acid. Evaporate to dryness, redissolve in from 10 to 20 drops of hydrochloric acid, dilute to 50 or 60 c.c., heat to boiling, and pass a current of hydrogen sulphide through the boiling solution. Filter off

the precipitated sulphides of copper, lead, etc., and wash with water containing hydrogen sulphide. Evaporate the filtrate, which contains only nickel, cobalt, and zinc, to dryness. To the dry salts in the bottom of the beaker add 2 drops of strong hydrochloric acid, dilute to 150 c.c. with cold water, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the solution until it is thoroughly saturated with the gas. If a white precipitate forms, it is zinc sulphide. Allow to stand several hours, filter, wash with hydrogen sulphide water (the zinc sulphide has a tendency to pass through the filter, and consequently the beaker into which the filtrate is received must be changed before the precipitate is poured on the filter), dry, and ignite the precipitate. Heat it several times with ammonium carbonate to drive off any sulphuric acid that may have been formed by the ignition, cool, and weigh as zinc oxide. The precipitate is yellowish white while hot and greenish white when cold. If it should carry down a little cobalt from the solution, the ignited precipitate of zinc oxide is green when cold. Pass hydrogen sulphide through the filtrate from the zinc sulphide again, and, if no further precipitate appears, add a few drops of a solution of .5 gramme of sodium acetate in 10 c.c. water. If this occasions a white precipitate, filter it off, after standing, as in the first instance; but if the precipitate is black (as it is almost certain to be if the instructions given above are strictly followed), add the rest of the sodium acetate solution, heat the solution to boiling, while the passage of the hydrogen sulphide is continued, allow the precipitate to settle, filter, ignite, and treat it as directed for the separation and determination of nickel and cobalt (page 188 *et seq.*).

DETERMINATION OF COPPER, LEAD, ARSENIC, AND ANTIMONY.

Treat 10 grammes of the finely ground ore with 50 c.c. hydrochloric acid, add a little potassium chlorate from time to time, and increase the heat gradually until the ore is perfectly decomposed. Dilute, filter into a No. 5 beaker, deoxidize with ammonium bisulphite, as directed on

page 81, drive off the excess of sulphurous acid, and pass hydrogen sulphide through the solution for fifteen or twenty minutes. Allow the solution to stand for some hours until the precipitate has settled completely and the solution smells but faintly of hydrogen sulphide. Filter on a thin felt on the Gooch crucible or small cone, wash with cold water, and suck dry. Transfer the felt and precipitate to a small beaker, using a little asbestos wad in the forceps to wipe off any adhering precipitate from the large beaker and the crucible or cone, and digest it with a few c.c. of a colorless solution of potassium sulphide. Dilute to about 100 c.c, filter on another felt, and wash with water containing a little potassium sulphide. The solution contains the arsenic and antimony sulphides dissolved in potassium sulphide, while the copper and lead sulphides remain on the felt. Return the felt with the precipitate to the beaker from which they were filtered, and digest with hydrochloric acid, with the addition of nitric acid, until all the black sulphides are dissolved, dilute with a little hot water, and filter. Evaporate the filtrate, after adding a few drops of sulphuric acid, until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are evolved, allow to cool, dilute with 25 c.c. cold water, add one-half its bulk of alcohol, allow to settle, filter the precipitated lead sulphate on the Gooch crucible, wash with alcohol and water, heat carefully over a low light, and weigh. Treat the precipitate on the felt under a slight pressure with a strongly ammoniacal solution of ammonium citrate, to dissolve the lead sulphate, wash with hot water, and weigh. The difference between the two weights is lead sulphate, which, multiplied by .68298, gives the weight of lead, or, multiplied by .78879, gives the weight of lead sulphide.

Evaporate the filtrate from the lead sulphate until the alcohol is driven off and the solution reduced to a convenient bulk, transfer to a platinum crucible, and precipitate the copper on the small platinum cylinder by the battery (Fig. 91). The weight of copper, multiplied by 1.25284, gives the weight of cuprous sulphide.

Acidulate the filtrate of potassium sulphide containing arsenic and antimony in solution with hydrochloric acid, and allow to stand in a warm place until all the hydrogen sulphide has been driven off and the

arsenic and antimony sulphides mixed with the excess of sulphur have settled completely. Filter on a thin felt, wash with warm water, then with alcohol, and finally with carbon disulphide, to dissolve the excess of sulphur. Transfer the felt and precipitate to a small beaker, add 5 c.c. hydrochloric acid and a few crystals of potassium chlorate. Digest at a low temperature for some time, adding occasionally a small crystal of potassium chlorate, finally heat a little, but not to a sufficiently high degree to fuse any little particles of separated sulphur, keeping the liquid always full of the products of decomposition of the potassium chlorate. When all the arsenic and antimony sulphides are dissolved, dilute with about 20 c.c. of warm water, and add a few small crystals of tartaric acid to keep the antimony in solution. Filter from the asbestos, using as little wash-water as possible in order to keep down the volume of the solution, add a slight excess of ammonia to the filtrate, and if it remains clear 5 c.c. of magnesia-mixture and one-third the volume of the solution of ammonia. Cool in ice-water, and stir vigorously from time to time to precipitate the ammonium-magnesium arsenate.

Allow to stand overnight, filter, and determine the arsenic as directed on page 200. If the acid solution above mentioned becomes cloudy upon the addition of ammonia, acidulate carefully with hydrochloric acid, and add a little more tartaric acid. Then proceed as above directed. The weight of arsenic calculated from the amount of magnesium pyro-arsenate, multiplied by 1.373, gives the weight of ferrous arsenide.

Acidulate the filtrate from the ammonium-magnesium arsenate, which contains none of the washings, with hydrochloric acid, so that the solution is just acid to test-paper, dilute with hot water to about 250 c.c., and pass hydrogen sulphide into the solution, heating it gradually to boiling. Drive off the excess of hydrogen sulphide with a current of carbonic acid, filter on a felt in the Gooch crucible, wash with water, alcohol, and finally with carbon disulphide to dissolve any free sulphur, dry carefully, heat to a temperature slightly above 100° C., and weigh as antimony trisulphide. For the very small amounts of antimony that are found in iron ores this method is sufficiently exact. The weight of antimony trisulphide, multiplied by .71390, gives the weight of antimony.

DETERMINATION OF THE ALKALIES.

As a rule, the alkalies in iron ores are found exclusively in the insoluble silicious matter, and when the sum of the weights of the silica, alumina, etc., lime, and magnesia in the insoluble silicious matter falls much below the weight of the latter, it is always well to look for alkalies.

Dissolve 3 grammes of the ore in hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 20 c.c. water, dilute, and filter into a platinum dish. Ignite the insoluble residue, treat it in the crucible with hydrofluoric acid and from 10 to 30 drops sulphuric acid, evaporate down until the sulphuric acid is driven off, dissolve in water with a little hydrochloric acid if necessary, transfer to a small platinum dish, dilute to 100 c.c., heat to boiling, and add excess of barium hydroxide. Boil for a few minutes, and filter from the alumina, etc., into another platinum dish. Evaporate the filtrate to dryness, treat the residue with a little water, heat to boiling and add ammonium carbonate to precipitate the barium, filter into another platinum dish, evaporate to dryness, and heat to dull redness. Dissolve in a few c.c. of water, and filter into a weighed crucible.

Evaporate very low, and, if nothing separates out, add a few drops of hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, heat to very dull redness, cool, and weigh as potassium chloride + sodium chloride. To the residue in the crucible add a little water, in which the residue should dissolve perfectly, and a solution of platinic chloride. Evaporate down in the water-bath until the mass in the crucible solidifies upon cooling, add a little water to dissolve the excess of platinic chloride, and then an equal volume of alcohol. Filter on a Gooch crucible, wash with alcohol until the filtrate runs through perfectly colorless, dry at 120° C., and weigh as potassium-platinic chloride. This weight, multiplied by .19395, gives the weight of potash. Then multiply the weight of potassium-platinic chloride by .30696, which gives the weight of potassium chloride. Subtract this from the weight of potassium chloride + sodium chloride previously obtained, and the difference is the weight of sodium chloride, which, multiplied by .53077, gives the weight of soda.

To the filtrate from the insoluble silicious matter add an excess of ammonia, rub a little grease or paraffine on the edge of the dish, and evaporate the mass to dryness. This will render the ferric oxide very compact and granular. Dilute with hot water, add a few drops of ammonia, filter into another platinum dish, add a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, and ignite to drive off all the ammonia salts. Then proceed exactly as directed for the determination of the alkalies in the insoluble silicious matter. The alkalies in the insoluble silicious matter may also be determined by J. Lawrence Smith's method of fusion with calcium carbonate and ammonium chloride, as directed farther on.

The ammonium chloride, which is so troublesome in alkali determinations, may be decomposed * very easily by evaporating the solution down very low, transferring to a tall beaker or flask, and heating with a large excess of nitric acid,—3 or 4 c.c. nitric acid to every gramme of ammonium chloride supposed to be present. The decomposition takes place at a temperature below the boiling-point of water, and when the action seems to be over, transfer to a porcelain dish, and evaporate to dryness after adding a few drops of sulphuric acid. Dissolve in water, filter into a platinum dish, and proceed with the analysis in the usual way.

DETERMINATION OF CARBONIC ACID.

Weigh 3 grammes of finely ground ore into the flask A (Fig. 99), and connect the apparatus in the manner shown in the sketch. L, L are tubulated bottles for forcing a current of air through the apparatus. The air is deprived of any carbonic acid which it may contain by passing through the tube M, which is filled with caustic potash. M is connected with the bulb-tube B by the tube N, a piece of rubber tubing over the slightly tapering end making an air-tight connection with B. O is a condenser and serves to condense the steam and acid from the flask

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* J. L. Smith, Am. Jour. Sci. and Art, 1871, 3d Ser., i. (whole No. 101) 269.

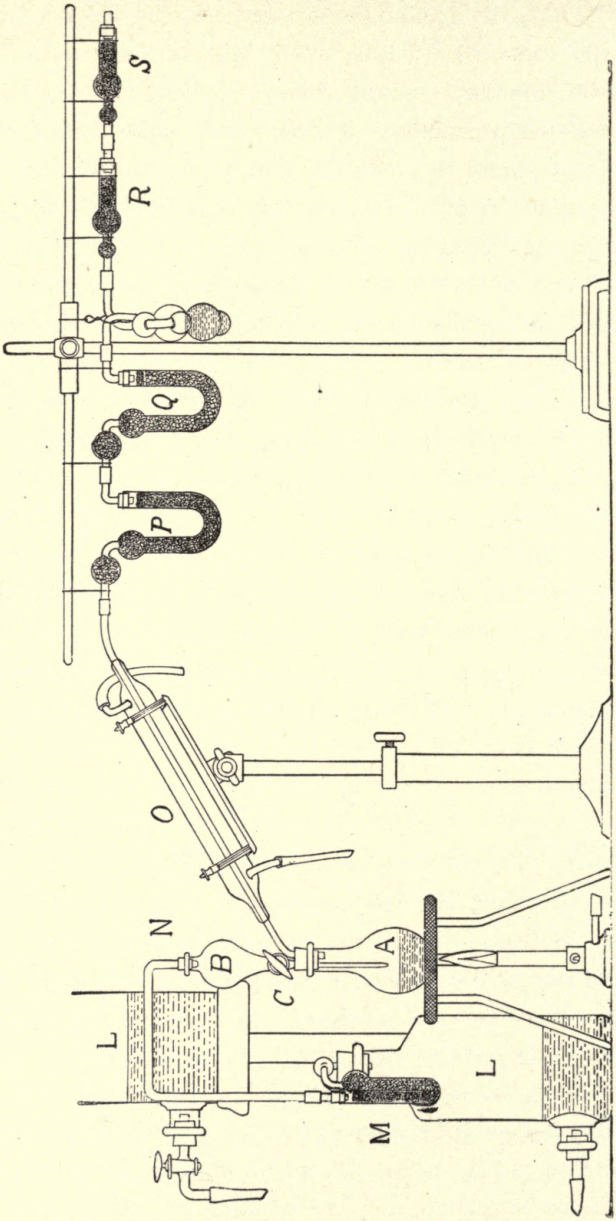


FIG. 99.

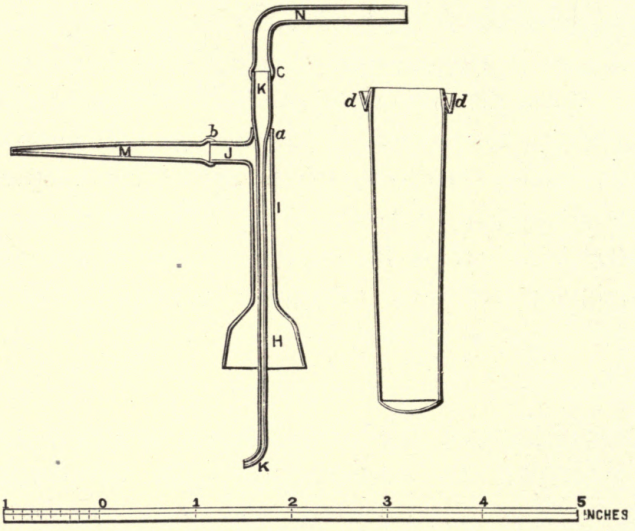
A. P contains anhydrous cupric sulphate, and Q contains calcium chloride. The potash-bulb and the drying-tube R form the absorption apparatus, and S is a safety-tube filled with calcium chloride to prevent R from absorbing moisture from the atmosphere. Weigh the absorption apparatus with the precautions mentioned on page 137, and connect the apparatus. Close the stopcock C, and draw a little air through the apparatus by means of a piece of rubber tubing attached to the end of S. Allow the tension of the air to draw the solution up into the rear limb of the potash-bulb, and if it remains there for a reasonable length of time the connections may be considered tight. Pour into the bulb B 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid diluted with about 65 c.c. water, connect the tube N, and by means of the stopcock C allow the acid to flow slowly into the flask A. When the acid has all run in, by opening slightly the stopcock in L, start a slow current of air through the apparatus. Warm the flask A, gradually increasing the heat until the solution boils, and continue the application of heat until a considerable amount of water has condensed in O. Allow it to cool while the current of air is continued, detach, and weigh the absorption apparatus. The increase of weight is the weight of carbonic acid.

DETERMINATION OF COMBINED WATER AND OF CARBON IN CARBONACEOUS MATTER.

The ores are very rare indeed in which the combined water can be determined accurately by simply heating them in a crucible and calling the loss by ignition "Water of Composition." Nor is the method of absorbing the moisture, driven off by heat, in a drying-tube much more reliable. The presence of pyrites, of organic matter, of graphite, and of manganese dioxide serves to complicate the problem. The water of composition may indeed be determined with great accuracy by heating the ore in a tube with lead chromate and potassium bichromate, exactly as described for the determination of carbon in iron and steel by direct combustion (page 143). The increase of weight of the U-tube which is attached to the end of the combustion-tube (and which in this case should

be filled with granulated dried cupric sulphate) is the weight of "Combined Water" in the amount of ore used. By attaching the absorption apparatus we likewise obtain the total carbonic acid in the ore, or that existing as carbonic acid in the carbonates, and that due to the oxidation of any carbon existing as carbonaceous or organic matter or as graphite. By subtracting from the weight of carbonic acid thus obtained the amount of carbonic acid existing as carbonate and determined by the method last given, and multiplying the difference by .27273, we get the

FIG. 100.

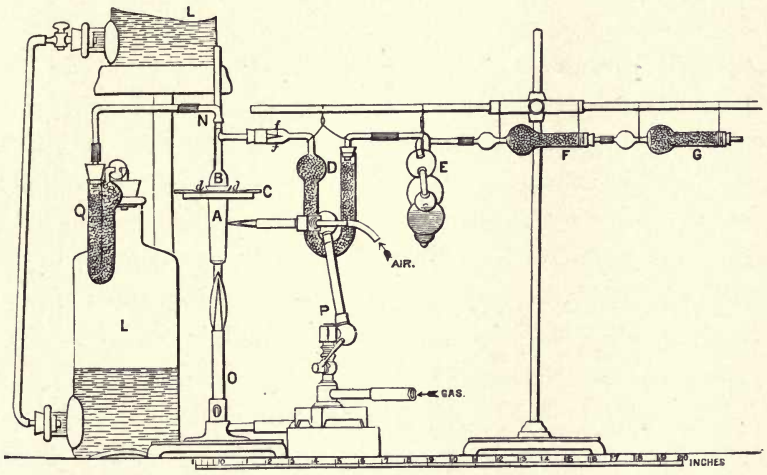


weight of "carbon in carbonaceous matter." When it is necessary to make a large number of these determinations, the matter is very much simplified by using the apparatus shown in Figs. 100 and 101.* Fig. 100 shows the details of a form of tubulated platinum crucible suggested by Dr. Gooch, which consists of the crucible with a flange at *d* into which fits the cap. This cap consists of a conical cover, H, drawn up vertically into the tube I. The horizontal tube J is burned into I, and through the centre of I passes the small tube K, which, expanding at *a*, is

* Tenth Census of the United States, Mining Industries, xv. 519.

burned into I at this point, sealing it securely. The glass tubes N and M are fused to K and J at C and *b* respectively. In analyzing ores containing much water or carbonic acid, use 1 gramme; for others, use 3 grammes. Weigh the finely ground ore, transfer it to a small agate mortar, and mix it thoroughly with from 7 to 10 grammes of previously fused potassium bichromate, transfer it to the crucible A (Fig. 101), and place it in an air-bath heated to 100° C. to drive off any hygroscopic moisture. When perfectly dry, attach the cap B to the crucible, and stand the latter in the triangle C. Close the end N with a piece

FIG. 101.



of rubber tubing in the other end of which is fitted a piece of glass rod. Attach the weighed drying-tube D, filled with calcium chloride, to the horizontal tube from B, by means of a thoroughly dried velvet cork. Attach the absorption apparatus E and F and the safety-tube G. Fill the outside of the flange *d* with small pieces of fused sodium tungstate, and, with a blow-pipe flame, melt them, having previously immersed the lower end of A in a small beaker of ice-water. The expansion of the air in the crucible by the heat applied to melt the sodium tungstate will force some bubbles through the potash-bulb E, and the subsequent cooling of the air in A will cause the liquid in E to flow back into the

rear bulb. If the difference of level thus produced be maintained for some minutes, the connections may be considered tight. Connect N with the bottles L, as shown in the sketch, and start a current of air through the apparatus. The air is purified from carbonic acid and moisture by passing through Q, which is filled with fused caustic potash. Now, by means of the blast-lamp P, heat the crucible just above the top of the mixture, and gradually carry the heat downward, increasing it at the same time. This will keep the mixture from frothing and choking the tube. Finally, heat the bottom of the crucible by the burner O, and continue the application of the heat for ten minutes. During the whole of the operation the air passes through N and K into the crucible and out through J and M (Fig. 100) into D (Fig. 101), and so through the apparatus. The moisture from the ore should not be allowed to condense in the wide part of D at *f*, but should be driven forward into the calcium chloride by warming the tube at *f* with the flame of an alcohol lamp. Allow the apparatus to cool while the current of air is continued, then detach, and weigh the tube D and the absorption apparatus, and calculate the results as directed on page 268. When detached from the apparatus, the wide end of the tube D may be closed by a short cork, covered with tin-foil to prevent the absorption of moisture from the atmosphere. To clean the crucible, remove it from the stand, and, holding it in a piece of asbestos board in an inclined position, melt the sodium tungstate in the flange *d* with a blow-pipe flame and detach the cap. Dissolve out the bichromate by placing the crucible in a dish of hot water, clean out the ore, dissolve any adhering oxide in hydrochloric acid, wash the crucible and cap with hot water, dry them, and they will be ready for another determination.

DETERMINATION OF CHROMIUM.

The small amount of chromium which is found in some iron ores is generally converted into sodium chromate very readily by fusion with sodium carbonate and potassium nitrate. Fuse 1 or 2 grammes of the

finely ground ore with ten times its weight of sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate. Treat the fused mass with water and wash it out into a small beaker. If the solution is colored by manganese, add a little alcohol, which will precipitate the manganese, leaving the solution, if chromium is present, slightly yellow. If the solution is colorless, it may be considered proof of the absence of chromium. Otherwise filter, wash the insoluble matter on the filter, dry it, grind it with ten times its weight of sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate, fuse, treat with water as before, filter, and add this filtrate to the other. Acidulate the combined filtrates with hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness to render the silica insoluble, and reduce the chromic acid to chromic oxide. Treat the mass with hydrochloric acid, dilute, filter, and precipitate the chromic oxide + alumina by ammonia. Boil for some minutes, filter, wash well with hot water, dry, and ignite the precipitate. Fuse with as little sodium carbonate and potassium nitrate as possible, treat with water, and wash the solution into a platinum dish. Evaporate the solution until it is very concentrated, adding from time to time crystals of ammonium nitrate to change all the carbonated and caustic alkali to nitrate. At each addition of ammonium nitrate the solution effervesces, and ammonium carbonate is given off. When the solution is nearly syrupy, the addition of ammonium nitrate no longer causes an effervescence, and the solution smells faintly of ammonia, add a few drops of ammonia, dilute, and filter. By this operation all the alumina, aluminum phosphate, manganese oxide, etc., are precipitated, and there remain in the solution only the alkalies and the alkaline chromate. To the filtrate add an excess of sulphurous acid in water, which instantly changes the color of the solution from yellow to green. Boil well, add an excess of ammonia, boil for a few minutes, filter on an ashless filter, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as chromic oxide.

Chrome iron ore is best decomposed by fusing .5 gramme of very finely ground ore with sodium peroxide as described in the analysis of ferro-chrome (page 220), and proceeding as there directed.

DETERMINATION OF TUNGSTEN.

Digest from 1 to 10 grammes of the ore in hydrochloric acid, adding nitric acid from time to time. When the ore appears to be perfectly decomposed, evaporate to dryness on the water-bath (a higher temperature is not admissible, as it may render the tungstic acid insoluble in ammonia), redissolve in hydrochloric acid, and evaporate again. Redissolve in hydrochloric acid, dilute, filter, wash with acidulated water, and finally with alcohol. Treat on the filter with ammonia, allowing the filtrate to run into a platinum dish, evaporate to small bulk, add excess of ammonia, filter, if necessary, into a platinum crucible, evaporate carefully to dryness, heat gently to drive off the ammonia, and ignite. Weigh as tungstic acid.

DETERMINATION OF VANADIUM.

Fuse 5 grammes of very finely ground ore with 30 grammes of sodium carbonate and from 1 to 5 grammes of sodium nitrate, and proceed exactly as in the determination of vanadium in pig-iron (page 204). A second fusion of the residue from the aqueous solution of the first fusion is hardly ever necessary.

DETERMINATION OF SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

The specific gravity of iron ores is determined with much greater accuracy by employing the powdered material than by using lumps of the ore. The little flask shown in Fig. 102 was designed for this purpose by the late Mr. James Hogarth,* and its use avoids two difficulties experienced with the ordinary specific gravity bottle,—the expansion and overflow consequent upon transferring the flask at 60° F. to the higher temperature of the balance-case, and the necessity for waiting until the finely divided particles of the ore shall have settled before inserting the

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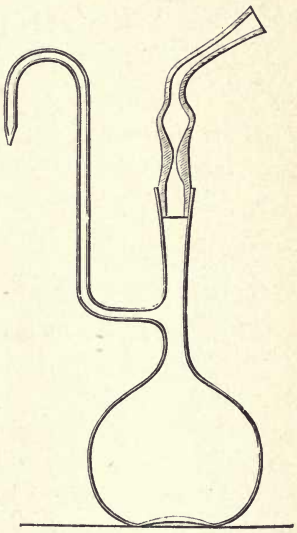
* Tenth Census of the United States, xv. 522.

stopper. These difficulties were overcome by melting a capillary tubulus to the lower part of the neck of the flask, and by grinding in a stopper having a small bulb above the capillary, to allow for expansion. The operation of determining the specific gravity of an ore is conducted as follows. Transfer a weighed amount of the ore to the flask, add enough water to cover it, and heat almost to the boiling-point by placing the flask without the stopper in the water-bath. Place the flask under a bell-jar connected with an aspirator or air-pump, and expel all the air by allowing the water to boil for some time at a reduced pressure. Remove the flask from the bell-jar, fill it to the tubulus with cold water, insert the stopper, and cool the flask and its contents to about 60° F. By suction on the stopper draw water through the tubulus until it is slightly above the capillary of the stopper, at which point a mark is scratched. When the flask and its contents are exactly at 60° F., adjust the volume exactly to the mark on the capillary by touching a piece of blotting-paper to the end of the tubulus or by drawing in a little water if the level is below the mark. Dry the flask, allow it to acquire the temperature of the balance-case, and weigh. Now, if W is the weight of ore taken, W′ the weight of the ore and water at 60° F., and K the weight of the flask and its contents to the mark of water at 60° F., then

FIG. 102.



$$\text{sp. gr.} = \frac{W}{W + K - W'}.$$

To obtain K, fill the flask with boiled water, and treat it exactly as described above.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

LIMESTONE.

DETERMINATION OF INSOLUBLE SILICIOUS MATTER, ALUMINA AND FERRIC OXIDE, CALCIUM CARBONATE, AND MAGNESIUM CARBONATE.

WEIGH 1 gramme of the powdered limestone, previously dried at 100° C., place it in a No. 1 beaker, cover with a watch-glass, and pour in 5 c.c. of hydrochloric acid diluted with 25 c.c. of water and a little bromine-water. Digest on the hot plate until all the action ceases, wash the watch-glass with a fine jet of water, and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid diluted with 50 c.c. water, filter on a small ashless filter, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as "Insoluble Silicious Matter." Heat the filtrate to boiling, add a slight excess of ammonia, boil for a few minutes, filter, wash once or twice. Dissolve the precipitate on the filter in a little dilute hydrochloric acid, allowing the solution to run into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, wash well with water, dilute, boil, and reprecipitate by ammonia. Filter on a small ashless filter, allow this filtrate to run into the beaker containing the first one, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as alumina and ferric oxide. Heat the united filtrates to boiling, add enough ammonium oxalate to convert all the calcium and magnesium into oxalates.* Allow the precipitate of calcium oxalate to settle for fifteen or twenty minutes, filter on an ashless filter, wash with

* 25 c.c. of the saturated solution is about the proper quantity.

hot water, dry, ignite for some time over a Bunsen burner, and finally for fifteen minutes at the highest temperature of a blast-lamp. Cool in a desiccator, weigh quickly, ignite again over the blast-lamp for five minutes, cool, and weigh again. If this weight is the same, or nearly the same, as the previous one, call the amount lime. If the second weight is much less than the first, ignite, and weigh again until the weight is constant. The weight of lime, multiplied by 1.78459, gives the weight of calcium carbonate. Add to the filtrate from the calcium oxalate 30 c.c. of a saturated solution of microcosmic salt (sodium-ammonium phosphate), acidulate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate the solution to about 300 c.c. If during the evaporation any precipitate should separate out, redissolve it in hydrochloric acid. Cool the evaporated solution in ice-water, and add ammonia drop by drop, stirring the solution, but being careful to avoid rubbing the sides of the beaker with the rod, as the precipitate of ammonium-magnesium orthophosphate is liable to adhere with great tenacity to those points or lines where the rod has touched the sides or bottom of the beaker. Continue the addition of ammonia until the solution is decidedly alkaline, and then add an amount equal to one-fourth of the neutralized solution. After the precipitate has begun to form, stir vigorously several times, allow to stand overnight, filter on an ashless filter, rub off with a "policeman" any of the precipitate that may adhere to the beaker, wash with a mixture of 1 part ammonia and 2 parts water, containing 100 grammes of ammonium nitrate to the litre, dry, ignite with great care, as directed on page 250, cool, and weigh as magnesium pyrophosphate, which, multiplied by .36212, gives the weight of magnesia, and, multiplied by .75760, gives the weight of magnesium carbonate.

Limestones, besides the ordinary constituents mentioned above, may contain small amounts of phosphoric acid, sulphur as sulphate or as pyrites, titanic acid, organic matter, combined water, alkalies, manganese, fluorine, and in rare instances nearly all the metals found in iron ores. For most of these the methods described in the analysis of iron ores may be employed. Very often the amounts of silica and alumina are required in calculating mixtures for the blast-furnace, and, as the matter

insoluble in hydrochloric acid consists usually of alumina, lime, and magnesia silicates, it would be necessary in accurate work to decompose the "Insoluble Silicious Matter" by fusion with sodium carbonate and to make a separate analysis of it, as described on page 249. It is, indeed, much better to make the analysis in this way than to add the filtrate from the silica to the main solution, for the calcium oxalate is sure to carry down some of the sodium salts with it and thus very materially complicate the analysis.

After weighing the alumina and ferric oxide from the "Insoluble Silicious Matter" and that from the portion soluble in dilute hydrochloric acid to determine the ferric oxide, fuse the two precipitates with a little sodium carbonate, dissolve in water, transfer to a beaker and acidulate with hydrochloric acid, add a few small crystals of citric acid to the clear solution, then excess of ammonia and ammonium sulphide. Allow the precipitate of ferrous sulphide to settle, filter, wash slightly, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, add a little bromine-water, boil the solution, precipitate by ammonia, filter, wash, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide. The weight of ferric oxide subtracted from the weight of the total alumina + ferric oxide gives, of course, the weight of alumina.

The lime and magnesia in the "Insoluble Silicious Matter" should not be calculated as carbonates, but should be considered as existing as lime and magnesia.

To determine phosphoric acid in limestones, treat 20 grammes with dilute hydrochloric acid, filter from the insoluble silicious matter, to the filtrate add a few drops of ferric chloride solution, then ammonia until the solution is alkaline to litmus-paper,* and acetic acid to decided acid reaction. Boil for a few minutes, filter, wash once with hot water, dissolve in hydrochloric acid on the filter, allowing the solution to run into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, add the solution from the treatment of the insoluble silicious matter mentioned below, dilute, and reprecipitate exactly as before with ammonia and acetic acid.

* If the precipitate is not decidedly red in color, acidulate with hydrochloric acid and add more ferric chloride solution.

Dissolve this precipitate on the filter in dilute hydrochloric acid, allowing the solution to run into a No. 1 beaker, wash the filter with hot water, evaporate the solution down almost to dryness, and precipitate the phosphoric acid as directed on page 80 *et seq.*

Ignite the insoluble silicious matter with hydrofluoric acid and a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate until fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off, fuse with sodium carbonate, digest in water, filter, acidulate the solution with hydrochloric acid, and add it to the solution of the first precipitate in the soluble portion as mentioned above.

Instead of treating the insoluble silicious matter with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, it may be fused at once with sodium carbonate, the fused mass treated with water, filtered, the filtrate acidulated, evaporated to dryness, redissolved in water slightly acidulated with hydrochloric acid, filtered, and the filtrate added to the solution of the first precipitate by ammonia and acetic acid as above.

To determine sulphur in limestone, fuse 1 gramme with sodium carbonate and potassium nitrate exactly as in the determination of sulphur in iron ores (page 237 *et seq.*).

To determine sulphates, proceed as in the analysis of iron ores for these substances (page 238).

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

CLAY.

CLAY is essentially silica, mixed with aluminum, calcium, magnesium, potassium, and sodium silicates. These silicates are hydrated, so that clay usually contains from 6 to 12 per cent. of water of composition. Besides these usual constituents, clay may contain ferric oxide, titanic acid, pyrites, organic matter, phosphoric acid, and occasionally some of the rarer elements, such as vanadium.

Clay being practically unacted on by hydrochloric acid, it is necessary to proceed as follows. Fuse 1 gramme of the finely ground clay, dried at 100° C., with 10 grammes of sodium carbonate and a very little sodium nitrate. Run the fused mass well up on the sides of the crucible, allow it to cool, and treat it with hot water until thoroughly disintegrated, transferring the liquid from time to time to a platinum dish. Treat the crucible with hydrochloric acid, add this to the liquid in the dish, acidulate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dryness in the air-bath. Treat the mass with water and a little hydrochloric acid, evaporate again to dryness, and treat with 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 45 c.c. water. Allow it to stand in a warm place for fifteen or twenty minutes, add 50 c.c. water, and filter on an ashless filter. Wash thoroughly with hot water acidulated with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, dry, ignite, heat for three or four minutes over the blast-lamp, and weigh. Treat the precipitate with hydrofluoric acid and a few drops of sulphuric acid, evaporate to dryness, ignite, and

weigh. The difference between the two weights is silica. If any appreciable residue remains in the crucible, treat it with a little hydrochloric acid, and wash it out into the filtrate from the silica. Transfer the filtrate from the silica to a large platinum dish, heat it to boiling, add an excess of ammonia, boil until the smell of ammonia is quite faint, filter on an ashless filter, and wash several times with hot water. Stand the filtrate and washings aside, and treat the precipitate on the filter with a mixture of 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 15 c.c. water (cold). Allow the solution to run into a small clean beaker, replace this by the platinum dish in which the precipitation was made, pour the solution on the filter again, and repeat this operation until the precipitate has completely dissolved. Rinse the beaker and wash the filter thoroughly with cold water, dry, and preserve it. Reprecipitate by ammonia, as above directed, filter on an ashless filter, wipe the dish with small pieces of filter-paper, add these to the precipitate, and wash thoroughly with hot water. Dry, ignite the precipitate and filter, and the filter from the first precipitation, heat for a few minutes over the blast-lamp, cool, and weigh as alumina and ferric oxide. Fuse the ignited precipitate with sodium carbonate, treat the fused mass with water, wash it into a small beaker, allow the residue to settle, decant off the clear, supernatant fluid, treat the residue with hydrochloric acid, and determine the iron volumetrically, or add citric acid and ammonia, and after precipitating the iron as sulphide, filter, wash, dissolve in hydrochloric acid, oxidize with bromine-water, and precipitate the ferric oxide by ammonia. Filter, wash, dry, ignite, and weigh as ferric oxide. Subtract the weight of ferric oxide from the alumina + ferric oxide found above, and the difference is alumina.

As the amounts of calcium and magnesium in clay are very small, the filtrate and washings from the second precipitation of alumina + ferric oxide may be rejected and the lime and magnesia determined in the first filtrate as directed on page 275.

To determine the alkalies in clay, treat 2 grammes of the finely ground material in a platinum dish with 4 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid and 40 or 50 c.c. of redistilled hydrofluoric acid. Stir it from time to time with a platinum wire or rod, heating carefully, until the clay is entirely decom-

posed and no more gritty substance can be felt under the rod. Evaporate to dryness, and heat until no more fumes of sulphuric anhydride are given off. The entire operation should be carried on under a hood with a good draft, as hydrofluoric acid is poisonous, and the evaporation may safely be conducted on the little arrangement shown in Fig. 10, page 20. Allow the dish to cool, add about 50 c.c. water and a little hydrochloric acid, and heat until the mass is all dissolved. If any of the clay has escaped decomposition, filter into another platinum dish, wash the insoluble matter on the filter, dry, ignite, and decompose it in the crucible with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids. Dissolve the mass in the crucible after evaporating off the hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, and add the solution to the main solution in the dish. Dilute this solution to 300 or 400 c.c. with hot water, heat to boiling, add an excess of barium hydrate, boil for a few minutes, and filter. Allow the precipitate to drain well on the filter, remove the filtrate, which should be in a platinum dish, to a light, and evaporate it down. Pierce the filter with a wire or rod, and wash the precipitate into the dish in which the precipitation was made with a jet of hot water. Dilute to 300 or 400 c.c., heat to boiling, filter, and wash several times with hot water. Add this filtrate to the first one, evaporate to dryness, and proceed exactly as directed for the determination of alkalies in the "Insoluble Silicious Matter" from iron ores (page 264).

Instead of decomposing the clay with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, the method given by J. Lawrence Smith may be used for determining alkalies. Place 1 gramme of the finely ground clay in a porcelain or agate mortar, add an equal weight of granular ammonium chloride,* and grind the two together to mix them. Add 8 grammes of calcium carbonate,† and grind the entire mass so as to obtain an intimate mixture of the whole. Transfer to a capacious platinum crucible, cover with a close-fitting lid, and heat carefully to decompose the ammonium chloride, which is accomplished in a few minutes. Heat gradually to redness, and keep the bottom of the crucible at a bright red for about an hour. Allow the crucible to cool, and if the mass is easily detached from the crucible, transfer it to a platinum

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* See page 45. † See page 52.

dish and add about 80 c.c. of water. Wash the crucible and lid with boiling water, pouring washings into the dish. Heat the water in the dish to boiling, and, when the mass has completely slaked, filter into another platinum dish and wash the mass on the filter with hot water. If the semi-fused mass in the crucible is not easily detached, place the crucible on its side in the dish, add about 100 c.c. water, and heat until the mass disintegrates. Remove the crucible, rinse it, and filter as above directed. To the filtrate add about 1½ grammes of pure ammonium carbonate, evaporate on the water-bath, or very carefully over a light, until the volume of the solution is reduced to about 40 c.c., add a little more ammonium carbonate and a few drops of ammonia, and filter on a small filter. Evaporate the filtrate carefully after adding a few drops more of ammonium carbonate to make certain that all the lime has been precipitated. If any further precipitate appears, filter into a platinum crucible and evaporate to dryness. Heat carefully to dull redness to drive off any ammonium salts, and weigh the residue as potassium-sodium chloride. Separate the potash and soda as directed on page 264.

Determine the water of composition by igniting 1 gramme of the clay for twenty minutes at a bright red heat, when the loss of weight will represent the water. In the presence of much organic matter or pyrites the method given for the determination of water of composition in iron ores (page 267) may be used.

To determine titanic acid, treat 2 grammes of the finely ground clay in a large platinum crucible with hydrofluoric acid and 5 c.c. sulphuric acid. Evaporate off the hydrofluoric acid and heat carefully until the greater part of the sulphuric acid is volatilized. Allow the crucible to cool, add 10 grammes of sodium carbonate, and fuse for thirty minutes at the highest temperature obtainable by a Bunsen burner. Run the fused mass well up on the sides of the crucible, and allow it to cool. Treat the fused mass with water, transfer it to a beaker, and filter. Wash the insoluble matter slightly on the filter, dry, ignite, and fuse it again with sodium carbonate. Dissolve in water as before, and filter. By this method of treatment nearly all of the alumina will be dissolved and separated from the titanic acid.

Fuse the insoluble matter left on the filter with sodium carbonate, and determine the titanic acid as directed on page 241.

When alkalies are determined, the precipitated alumina may be used for the determination of titanic acid. In this case dry the precipitate of alumina, etc., separate it from the filter, ignite the two filters, add the ash to the dried (not ignited) precipitate of alumina, etc., and fuse with sodium carbonate as above.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

SLAGS.

BLAST-FURNACE slags contain silica, alumina, lime, magnesia, and alkalies always, generally also ferrous oxide, manganous oxide, and sulphur, and occasionally titanic acid, small amounts of phosphoric acid, and such metallic oxides as may exist in the ores, fluxes, or fuel used in the furnace. Sulphur, which is occasionally present in considerable amounts, is considered to exist in the slag as calcium sulphide.

The method used for the determination of the principal ingredients depends upon whether the slag is capable of being entirely or but partially decomposed by hydrochloric acid.

In the first case weigh 1 gramme of the finely ground slag, place it in a platinum or porcelain dish, add 20 c.c. of water, and shake the dish until the material is thoroughly disseminated through the water. Add gradually 30 c.c. hydrochloric acid, with constant stirring, and finally heat the dish carefully. The slag will dissolve completely to a clear liquid, but, after heating for a short time, will suddenly form a solid jelly. Evaporate carefully to dryness, treat with a few c.c. of dilute hydrochloric acid and a little bromine-water, evaporate again to dryness, and add 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 45 c.c. water. Allow to stand fifteen or twenty minutes in a warm place, add 50 c.c. water, filter on an ashless filter, wash thoroughly with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh. Treat the material in the crucible with a little water, add 2 or 3 drops sulphuric acid and enough hydrofluoric acid to dissolve it. Evaporate to dryness, ignite, and weigh. The loss of weight is silica.

Any residue in the crucible after the volatilization of the silica is to be added to the alumina and ferric oxide. Heat the filtrate obtained above, diluted to 500 c.c., to boiling, add a slight excess of ammonia, boil for a few minutes, filter on an ashless filter, and wash two or three times with boiling water. Stand the filtrate aside, and pour on the precipitate in the filter a mixture of 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and 30 c.c. cold water, allowing the solution to run into the dish in which the precipitation was made. Alumina precipitated in this way seems generally to dissolve more readily in cold than in hot dilute hydrochloric acid, but it is often necessary to break up the precipitate on the filter with a rod, and pour the acid solution back on the filter several times after it has run through, or sometimes to pierce the filter with a rod or wire and wash the precipitate still undissolved into the dish. Wash the filter well with water, dry it, and keep it to ignite with the alumina, etc. Heat the filtrate and washings to boiling, reprecipitate by ammonia, filter on an ashless filter, clean off any adhering precipitate from the dish with filter-paper, add it to the precipitate on the filter, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, after adding the filter on which the first precipitation was filtered, and weigh as alumina, etc. Add to this the weight of the residue from the treatment of the silica by sulphuric and hydrofluoric acids,* and the sum is the total alumina + ferric oxide + phosphoric acid + titanic acid.

Evaporate the two filtrates obtained above down to about 300 c.c., transfer to a No. 3 beaker, add a few drops of ammonia and enough ammonium sulphide to precipitate the manganese. Filter off and determine the manganese as directed on page 244, in the "Analysis of Iron Ores." To the filtrate from the manganese sulphide add a slight excess of hydrochloric acid, boil until all the hydrogen sulphide is driven off, filter from any precipitated sulphur, and determine the lime and magnesia as directed on page 275 *et seq.*, in the "Analysis of Limestone."

To determine the ferrous oxide, fuse the ignited precipitate of alumina, etc., obtained above, with 5 grammes of sodium carbonate, at a very high temperature, for at least thirty minutes. Allow the crucible to cool, treat

* This residue should be examined for lime.

the fused mass with water, transfer to a beaker, allow the insoluble matter to settle, decant the clear, supernatant liquid through a filter, and treat the residue with hydrochloric acid. Pour the solution through the filter to take up any iron that may have been suspended in the liquid decanted through it, and determine the iron volumetrically or by precipitation as sulphide in the solution to which citric acid and an excess of ammonia have been added, as on page 257. When the slag contains no appreciable amount of manganese, the precipitation by ammonium sulphide (page 284) may be omitted and the lime precipitated at once from the concentrated solution.

For the analysis of slags that are not entirely decomposed by hydrochloric acid, recourse must be had to fusion with sodium carbonate and a little sodium nitrate, exactly as described for the analysis of clay (page 278 *et seq.*). After filtering off the silica as directed (page 278), proceed with the analysis as described for slags decomposed by hydrochloric acid (page 283 *et seq.*). As, however, the calcium oxalate is very liable to carry down sodium salts with it, it is always well, after igniting the calcium oxalate, to dissolve it in dilute hydrochloric acid, transfer the solution to a platinum dish, dilute to 300 c.c. with hot water, add an excess of ammonia, and precipitate boiling by 30 c.c. of a saturated solution of ammonium oxalate. Filter, wash, ignite, and weigh in the usual manner.

For the determination of sulphur in slags, fuse 1 gramme with sodium carbonate and a little potassium nitrate, and proceed exactly as directed for the determination of sulphur in iron ores (page 237 *et seq.*). Calculate the total sulphur as calcium sulphide and the remainder of the calcium as lime.

For the determination of alkalies, titanic acid, etc., proceed as directed for the determination of these substances in clay.

Converter slags, open-hearth slags, refinery slag, tap cinder, mill cinder, etc., are analyzed by the methods described for the analysis of iron ores. In the case of slags obtained from the manufacture of steel by the basic process, which usually contain very large amounts of phosphoric acid, proceed as follows. Treat 1 gramme of the finely ground slag in a small beaker with 15 c.c. hydrochloric acid and a little nitric acid until it is decomposed. Evaporate to dryness, redissolve in 10 c.c. hydrochloric acid

and 20 c.c. water, dilute, filter, and weigh the silica. To the filtrate diluted to 500 c.c. add a solution of ferric chloride and a slight excess of ammonia, if the precipitate is not decidedly red in color, acidulate carefully with hydrochloric acid, add more ferric chloride solution, and then a slight excess of ammonia. Add acetic acid to slight acid reaction, heat to boiling, filter and wash slightly with boiling water, stand the filtrate aside, and dissolve the precipitate on the filter in hydrochloric acid, allow the solution to run into the beaker in which the precipitation was made, wash the filter thoroughly with cold water, dilute the filtrate to about 400 c.c., add a slight excess of ammonia and then acetic acid, boil, and filter as before. Add this filtrate to the first, evaporate down, and determine the manganese, lime, and magnesia, as directed in the case of blast-furnace slags (page 284). Dissolve the precipitate on the filter in hydrochloric acid, dissolving any iron that may adhere to the beaker in a few drops of the same acid, pour it on the filter, and wash the beaker and filter well with water. Allow the solution and washings to run into a No. 3 beaker, and add about 10 grammes of citric acid and an excess of ammonia. To this solution, which should be cold, and should measure about 300 c.c., add, drop by drop, 50 c.c. of magnesia-mixture, stirring carefully, without touching the sides of the beaker with the rod. Add about one-third the volume of the solution of ammonia, allow the beaker to stand in ice-water for some time, stir vigorously several times, and after a few hours filter (preferably on a Gooch crucible), wash with ammonia-water of the usual strength, ignite carefully, and weigh as magnesium pyrophosphate. Any alumina in the slag will be in the filtrate from the ammonium-magnesium phosphate, and may be determined by the method on page 257. Determine the iron volumetrically in a separate portion, and calculate to ferrous oxide. Determine any other elements present by the methods under "Analysis of Iron Ores."

Phosphoric acid cannot well be determined in basic slags by fusion with sodium carbonate, as calcium phosphate is not readily decomposed by this method, and its employment may lead to error.

METHOD FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

FIRE-SANDS.

As sand contains comparatively very small amounts of alumina, lime, and magnesia, and a very large amount of silica, it is best to proceed with the analysis as follows. Place 2 grammes of the finely ground sand in a large platinum crucible, moisten it with cold water, add 6 or 8 drops of sulphuric acid, and then gradually enough hydrofluoric acid to dissolve it. Evaporate to dryness (under a hood, of course), and heat to redness to drive off the sulphuric acid. Allow the crucible to cool, add a little sodium carbonate, and fuse. Dissolve the fusion, when cold, in water, add an excess of hydrochloric acid, evaporate to dryness, redissolve in hydrochloric acid and water, filter from silica, and determine the alumina, lime, and magnesia as usual. Ignite 1 gramme of the sand and determine the loss, which will be water and organic matter (if present).

It is well to note that in the presence of alumina it is almost impossible to drive off all the silica by treatment with hydrofluoric and sulphuric acids, and the small amount of silica remaining after this treatment must be separated as directed above.

Add together the percentages of water, alumina, lime, and magnesia, subtract the sum from 100, and call the remainder silica.

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

COAL AND COKE.

A PROXIMATE analysis affords a very rapid and comparatively simple way of classifying and valuing coal. From the nature of the material, the determinations cannot be absolute, but inferences may be drawn from the relative proportions of Moisture, Volatile Combustible Matter, and Ash. Therefore it is essential that the analysis should be performed in such a way as to obtain the most concordant results.

PROXIMATE ANALYSIS.*

Determination of Moisture.

"Dry one gramme of the coal in an open porcelain or platinum crucible at from 104° to 107° C. for one hour, best in a double-walled bath containing pure toluene.† Cool in a desiccator and weigh covered.

"With coals high in moisture, and in all cases where accuracy is desired, determinations must be made both with the coarsely ground and with the powdered coal. When, as will usually be the case, more moisture is found in the coarsely ground than in the powdered coal, a correction must be applied to all determinations made with the latter. Thus, if 1 per cent.

* From the Report of the Committee on Coal Analysis to the American Chemical Society, Journal of the American Chem. Soc., xxi. 1116. William A. Noyes, W. F. Hillebrand, and C. B. Dudley, committee.

† Victor Meyer, Ber. d. Chem. Ges., 17, 2999.

more of moisture is found in the coarsely ground sample, a total of 1 per cent. must be subtracted from the quantities of the other constituents as determined with the powdered sample. Or, in the form of a rule: divide the difference in moisture by the per cent. of other constituents than moisture as found in the powdered coal by the quotient and subtract the resulting product from the amount of the given constituent.

"Thus, suppose the results of an analysis give:

	Coarsely ground Coal.	Powdered Coal.
Moisture	12.07	10.39
Volatile combustible matter		34.25,

then the correction factor will be

$$\frac{12.07 - 10.39}{100 - 10.39} = \frac{1.68}{89.61} = 0.0187,$$

and the true per cent. of volatile combustible matter will be

$$34.25 - (34.25 \times 0.0187) = 33.61.$$

"It is possible that volatile combustible matter and ash may be determined with the coarsely ground coal without serious error, but we have not enough data at our command to warrant such a recommendation.

"The toluene bath is recommended for convenience, but any other bath at the proper temperature will answer equally well. In all cases recorded below the coals gained in weight, probably from oxidation, after one hour's heating, so that longer heating is not only unnecessary but undesirable. A higher temperature appears also to be undesirable."

Determination of Volatile Combustible Matter.

"Place 1 gramme of fresh, undried, powdered coal in a platinum crucible weighing 20 or 30 grammes and having a tightly fitting cover. Heat over the full flame of a Bunsen burner for seven minutes. The crucible should be supported on a platinum triangle with the bottom from 6 to 8 cm. above the top of the burner. The flame should be fully 20 cm. high when burning free, and the determination should be made in a place free from draughts. The upper surface of the cover should burn clear, but the under surface should remain covered with carbon. To find

Volatile Combustible Matter, subtract the per cent. of moisture from the loss found here." (The weight of the material left in the crucible is "coke.")

Determination of Ash.

"Burn the portion of powdered coal used for the determination of moisture, at first over a very low flame, with the crucible open and inclined, till free from carbon. If properly treated, this sample can be burned much more quickly than the dense carbon left from the determination of volatile matter. It is advisable to examine the ash for unburned carbon by moistening it with alcohol.

"When the sulphur in the coal is in the form of pyrites, that compound is converted almost entirely into ferric oxide in the determination of ash; and, since three atoms of oxygen replace four atoms of sulphur, the weight of the ash is less than the weight of the mineral matter in the coal by five-eighths of the weight of the sulphur. While the error from this source is sometimes considerable, the committee does not recommend such a correction for 'proximate' analyses. When analyses are to be used as a basis for calculating the heating effect of the coal a correction should be made."

Determination of Fixed Carbon.

"This is found by subtracting the per cent. of ash from the per cent. of coke as found above. Sulphur, which passes partly into the Volatile Combustible Matter and partly into the coke, is not considered in the calculation."

Determination of Sulphur.

Weigh 1 gramme of the finely ground coal or coke, and mix it thoroughly, by grinding in a large agate or porcelain mortar, with 10 grammes of dry sodium carbonate and 6 grammes of potassium nitrate. During the mixing it is well to have the mortar on a large sheet of white glazed paper, to catch any particles that may be thrown from it. Transfer the mixture to a large platinum crucible, clean the mortar by grinding a little sodium carbonate in it, transfer this and any particles that may be on the paper to the crucible, cover the latter with a lid, and place it on a triangle over an alcohol lamp. Heat the crucible very carefully, and raise

the heat very slowly, cautiously removing the lid of the crucible from time to time to see that the fusion does not boil over. It is very necessary that an alcohol lamp be used for this fusion, as the sulphur in ordinary gas will certainly vitiate the result. When the mass in the crucible is in a tranquil state of fusion, run it up on the sides of the crucible, cool, treat with hot water, and wash out into a small clean beaker. Filter from the insoluble matter, acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in water with a few drops of hydrochloric acid, filter, dilute the filtrate to about 500 c.c., heat to boiling, and add from 10 to 20 c.c. of a strong solution of barium chloride.* Allow the precipitated barium sulphate to settle, decant the clear, supernatant fluid through a filter or a felt on a Gooch crucible, heat the precipitate with a solution of ammonium acetate,† transfer it to the filter, wash well with hot water, dry, ignite, and weigh as barium sulphate, which, multiplied by .13756, gives the weight of sulphur. The time of the operation may often be very much shortened by adding an excess of ammonia to the acidulated filtrate of the aqueous solution of the fusion, and boiling the solution while passing a rapid current of carbonic acid gas through it. This precipitates the silica, alumina, etc., and, after filtering this off, acidulate by hydrochloric acid, and precipitate the barium sulphate as above directed.

A blank determination, using the same amount of sodium carbonate, potassium nitrate, and hydrochloric acid, should always be made with every new lot of reagents, and the amount of barium sulphate found subtracted from the amount of barium sulphate in every analysis before calculating the amount of sulphur in the coal or coke.

Determination of Sulphur.‡ (Eschka's Method.)

"Eschka's method is recommended for general use. The following directions, which are given for the convenience of those using this report, are those of G. L. Heath§ with slight modifications.

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* See page 51. † See page 45.

‡ From Report of Com. on Coal Analysis, *ante.*

§ Journal American Chem. Soc., xx. 630.

"Mix thoroughly 1 gramme of the finely powdered coal* with 1 gramme of magnesium oxide and ½ gramme of dry sodium carbonate in a thin platinum dish having a capacity of from 75 to 100 c.c. A crucible may be used, but a dish is preferred. The magnesium oxide should be light and porous, not a compact, heavy variety.

"The dish is heated on a triangle over an alcohol lamp, held in the hand at first. *Gas must not be used*, because of the sulphur it contains. The mixture is frequently stirred with a platinum wire and the heat raised very slowly, especially with soft coals. The flame is kept in motion and barely touching the dish, at first, till strong glowing has ceased, and is then increased gradually till, in fifteen minutes, the bottom of the dish is at a low red heat. When the carbon is burned, transfer the mass to a beaker and rinse the dish, using about 50 c.c. of water. Add 15 c.c. of saturated bromine-water and boil for five minutes. Allow to settle, decant through a filter, boil a second and third time with 30 c.c. of water, and wash till the filtrate gives only a slight opalescence with silver nitrate and nitric acid. The volume of the filtrate should be about 200 c.c. Add 1½ c.c. of concentrated hydrochloric acid or a corresponding amount of dilute acid (8 c.c. of an acid of 8 per cent.). Boil till the bromine is expelled, and add to the hot solution drop by drop, especially at first, and with constant stirring, 10 c.c. of a 10 per cent. solution of barium chloride. Digest on the water-bath or over a low flame, with occasional stirring till the precipitate settles clear quickly. Filter and wash, using either a Gooch crucible or a paper filter. The latter may be ignited moist in a platinum crucible, using a low flame till the carbon is burned.

"In the case of coals containing much pyrites or calcium sulphate, the residue of magnesium oxide should be dissolved in hydrochloric acid and the solution tested for sulphuric acid.

"If desirable, the burning of the coal with Eschka's mixture may be carried out in a muffle, from twenty to thirty minutes being required."†

* With coals high in moisture a correction may be necessary on account of the loss of water in powdering the coal. (See above under Moisture.)

† Rothe, Stahl und Eisen, xii. 31 (1894).

In reporting the results of a coal analysis the sulphur should always be reported as a separate matter, and no attempt should be made to distribute it between the Volatile Combustible Matter, Fixed Carbon, and Ash. The reason for this is obvious when we consider the conditions in which sulphur exists in coal, and the difficulty which attends any attempt to determine the amount existing in any one condition.

Sulphur is known to exist in coal in three conditions,—as a metallic sulphide, such as pyrites, as calcium or barium sulphate, and as a sulphuretted hydrocarbon. In a proximate analysis of coal about one-half the sulphur in any pyrites present and all the sulphur existing as a sulphuretted hydrocarbon are probably driven off with the Volatile Combustible Matter. The rest of the sulphur from the pyrites is oxidized and driven off during the burning of the Fixed Carbon (iron sulphate being easily decomposed at a bright red heat) unless the sulphuric acid formed is taken up by an alkali or alkaline earth.

The nearest approach we can make to a determination of the conditions in which the sulphur exists in any coal is to make a determination of the total sulphur by fusion, and a determination of the sulphuric acid in the ash. By subtracting the sulphur found by the latter determination from the total sulphur the difference may be taken to represent the amount existing as sulphur (in the form of sulphide), and the amount found in the ash as that existing as sulphuric anhydride (in the form of sulphate). These results will be correct if the coal contains no carbonates of the alkalies or alkaline earths.

Determination of Phosphoric Acid.

Burn off 10 grammes of the coal or coke in a crucible, or, as in anthracite coal or coke this is a very tedious operation, burn it off in a large platinum boat in a tube in a current of oxygen. A boat 4 inches (102 mm.) long, and wide enough to fit in a tube ¾ of an inch (19 mm.) in diameter, will hold 10 grammes very easily, and by its use this amount of coke or anthracite coal may be burned off in a current of oxygen in about one and a half hours. Treat the ash with hydrochloric acid to dissolve any calcium phosphate, filter, and wash well with water. Stand

the filtrate aside, dry, ignite, and fuse the insoluble matter with sodium carbonate. Dissolve in water, filter from the insoluble matter, acidulate the filtrate with hydrochloric acid, and evaporate to dryness. Redissolve in water and a little hydrochloric acid, add this filtrate to the hydrochloric acid filtrate from the first treatment of the ash, add a little ferric chloride solution and a slight excess of ammonia. Acidulate with acetic acid, heat to boiling, boil for a few minutes, filter, and wash the precipitate once or twice with boiling water. Dissolve the precipitate in hydrochloric acid, evaporate nearly to dryness, add citric acid, magnesia-mixture, and ammonia, and precipitate as directed on page 84. Filter, ignite, and weigh the magnesium pyrophosphate as there directed. Or, after dissolving the acetate precipitate, as above, in hydrochloric acid, evaporate down, and precipitate the phosphoric acid by molybdate solution, as directed on page 97 *et seq.*

ULTIMATE ANALYSIS.*

"It seems to be unnecessary to give directions for the determinations of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen here. In determining carbon and hydrogen, lead chromate or some other means for retaining sulphur must, of course, be used. The amount of nitrogen is so small that the use of a copper spiral is not necessary."

"The method to be used in calculating the oxygen of the coal presents, perhaps, the question of greatest difficulty. If we could be sure that all of the sulphur is present in the form of pyrites, and that this is converted into ferric oxide in the ash, the oxygen should be found by subtracting from 100 the sum of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, ash, and five-eighths of the sulphur. This is probably the safest rule which can be given for general use, and especially for coals high in sulphur. The operator should, however, satisfy himself as to whether the ash is practically free

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* From Report of Com. on Coal Analysis, *ante.*

from sulphates, and, if possible, whether the sulphur is mainly in the form of pyrites. If necessary, the rule should be modified, in particular cases, accordingly."

Heating Effect.

"In the preliminary report the recommendation was made that the heating effect be given on the basis of the coal burned to vapor of water at 100° C. After some criticism from others and further consideration, we have concluded to recommend that results be given for the coal burned to liquid water at the ordinary temperature. The reasons for this recommendation are that this appears to be the common practice in this country, and because coals are burned to liquid water in the bomb calorimeter, which undoubtedly furnishes the best determinations of heating effect at present available. Engineers and others will, of course, understand that the heating effect, when stated in this manner, includes from 3½ to 4 per cent. of heat which can never be secured under the conditions of practical use.

"The most reliable formula for the calculation of the heating effect of a coal burned to liquid water is that of Dulong, which gives the calorific power in calories per kilogramme.

$$\text{"Calorific power} = 8080\ C + 34{,}460\ (H - \tfrac{1}{8}\ O) + 2250\ S.$$

"For the calculation of the oxygen, see the paragraph above on ultimate analysis."

"The calorific power in British Thermal Units per pound may be found by multiplying that in calories per kilogramme by nine-fifths."

"The theoretical evaporative effect is to be calculated by dividing the number of calories per kilogramme by 536, or the number of British Thermal Units per pound by 965, and subtracting from the result one-seventh more than the amount of water formed by burning one kilogramme of the coal. The addition of one-seventh is given because the liquid water, on the basis of which the heating effect is given, must be considered as changed from water at ordinary temperature to steam at 100° C. The amount to be subtracted may be taken as 0.55 for most

bituminous coals. The result gives the theoretical number of kilogrammes, or pounds, of water converted into steam from, and at, 100° C. by one kilogramme, or pound, of coal."

"The rule given, tentatively, in our preliminary report for the calculation of heating effect, from the amount of combustible matter present in bituminous coals, has been found to be of limited application."

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS

OF

GASES.

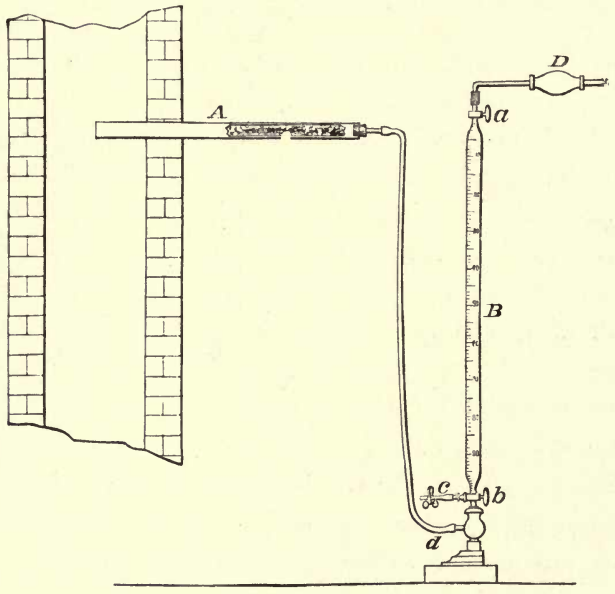
THE technical analysis of gases is of growing importance, and a knowledge of the methods of analysis and of the manipulation involved is now generally necessary to the iron chemist. For ease of manipulation, and for the accuracy of the results obtained by its use, Hempel's form of apparatus is generally to be preferred. It consists essentially of a burette for holding and measuring the gas, B, Fig. 103 (the modified Winkler's gas-burette), and a pipette, G (Fig. 106), which holds the reagent. By means of the level-tube A, filled with water, the gas is forced into the pipette, where it is brought in contact with the reagent and afterwards returned to the burette and measured. By the use of a series of these pipettes, each filled with a separate reagent, the various constituents of the gas under examination are absorbed and their volumes estimated.

COLLECTING SAMPLES.

Fig. 100 shows a very simple method for taking a sample of gas for analysis. The porcelain tube A passes through the brick-work into the flue through which the gas is carried. In the sketch a portion of the porcelain tube is cut away, to show the loose filaments of asbestos with which the tube is filled to keep dust or tarry matter from entering the burette. This asbestos must be put in very loosely, or it will pack and interfere

with the free passage of the gas. Where the gas, as from a producer, etc., is constantly examined, it is very convenient to have a valve fitted permanently to an iron pipe screwed or cemented into the flue, into which the porcelain tube may be fastened by means of a rubber or asbestos * stopper. A glass tube of about ¼ inch (6 mm.) diameter is fitted into the outer end of the porcelain tube A (Fig. 103) by means of a rubber or asbestos stopper, and this glass tube is connected by means of the rubber tube C with the

FIG. 103.

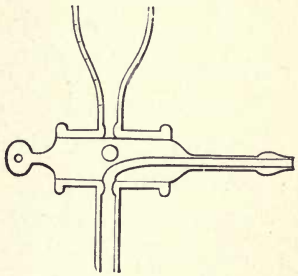


opening at the lower end of the burette *d*. If the gas is under pressure (as is rarely the case), it is only necessary to open the stopcocks and allow it to pass through the burette until the air is entirely displaced. Usually, however, it is necessary to draw the gas through; and the little india-rubber pump D attached to the capillary tube at the upper end of the burette is very useful for this purpose. It is fitted with a simple valve at each end, so that by compressing the bulb in the hand its contents are dis-

* See page 144.

charged through the outer end while the pressure closes the valve at the burette end. When the bulb is released it resumes its shape, the tension closing the outer valve and opening the one towards the burette, through which the contents of the latter are drawn into the bulb. A bulb of the usual size will empty a 100 c.c. burette in about three strokes. In taking a sample of gas, turn the three-way stopcock *b* so that the passage is open through into the burette, open the stopcock *a* at the upper end of the burette, and pump the gas through slowly for five or six minutes. Close the upper stopcock *a*, compress the rubber tube C between the thumb and fingers of the left hand, and, holding the tube with the other hand, slide the left hand towards the burette. This will compress the gas in the burette, and by closing the stopcock *b* while the tube C is thus held the gas in the burette will be under pressure. In closing *b*, it must be turned so that the passage is open from *d* out through *c*, as shown in Fig. 104. Remove the burette to the laboratory, attach the rubber tube C of the level-tube A (Fig. 106) to the end of the burette, loosen the pinchcock E, and allow the water to run through until it comes out through the rubber tube on the end of the stopcock. Close E, and allow the burette and gas to attain the temperature of the laboratory. Samples of gas for analysis may also be taken in glass tubes drawn out at the ends and closed by rubber tubes and pinchcocks or pieces of glass rod. When the sample is to be taken to a distance, it may often be collected in a metal vessel with conical ends and tubes with well-ground stopcocks. Glass vessels of the proper shape, holding from half a litre to one litre, and fitted with glass stopcocks and capillary tubes made for this purpose, may be purchased from dealers in chemical glass-ware. From these vessels or tubes the gas may be transferred to the burette by attaching to one outlet a tube filled with water and joined to the burette, likewise filled with water, placing the other end of the vessel in water, lowering the level-tube, and drawing the gas into the burette.

FIG. 104.

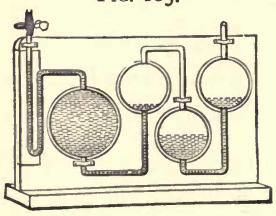


REAGENTS FOR THE PIPETTES.

Blast-furnace gas, producer gas, and, in general, gases made by drawing or forcing atmospheric air through coal or coke, contain varying amounts of carbon dioxide (CO_2), oxygen (O), carbon monoxide (CO), hydrogen (H), methane, or marsh gas (CH_4), and nitrogen (N). The best absorbents are caustic potash for carbon dioxide, pyrogallol for oxygen, and cuprous chloride in hydrochloric acid for carbon monoxide. Hydrogen is determined by ignition with excess of oxygen over palladium sponge, and marsh gas by ignition in a tube filled with cupric oxide. The pipettes required, therefore, are a simple pipette (G, Fig. 106) filled with caustic potash (1.27 sp. gr.) for absorbing carbonic acid, which is readily filled by placing in the large tube of the pipette a small glass tube, which extends down to the bottom of the bulb and is connected outside with a small glass funnel by means of a piece of rubber tubing. Pour the caustic potash in through the funnel until the large bulb of the pipette and the tube connecting the two bulbs are filled with the liquid. Draw the liquid into the capillary tube until it reaches to within a very short distance of the rubber tube on the end of the capillary, and close the rubber tube with a piece of glass tubing or a pinchcock, as shown in the sketch of the composite pipette (Fig. 105).

A composite pipette containing pyrogallol for absorbing oxygen is filled as follows. Dissolve 30 grammes of pyrogallic acid in 75 c.c. of water, attach a funnel to the capillary tube of the pipette by a piece of rubber tubing, and fill it with the solution. Attach a piece of rubber tubing to the other tube of the pipette, and by gentle suction exhaust the air; this will cause the liquid to run rapidly through the capillary tube into the pipette. Keep the funnel full until the liquid which is drawn through the large bulb into the second bulb fills the latter to an inconvenient extent, then stop the suction, and very carefully blow the liquid back into the large bulb. Fill the funnel again, and exhaust the air gently as before.

FIG. 105.



Repeat this until all the solution of pyrogallic acid has been drawn in, and then with the same precautions draw in a solution of caustic potash (1.27 sp. gr.) until the large bulb and the tube connecting the large bulb and the second bulb are filled with the liquid, which is now an alkaline solution of potassium pyrogallate. Close the capillary tube as directed for the caustic potash pipette (page 300). Insert the small tube and funnel in the large tube of the composite pipette, as directed for filling the simple pipette, and pour a little water into the last bulb of the composite pipette. The amount of water poured in should not be sufficient to fill the third bulb, for the pyrogallol rapidly absorbs the oxygen of the air in the second bulb, and this contraction causes the water poured into the last bulb to rise in the third bulb. Therefore the amount of water should be small enough to permit small bubbles of air to pass through to supply the contraction in the second bulb, and large enough to avoid emptying the third bulb when during an analysis the gas is forced through the capillary into the large bulb of the pipette. The amount of potassium pyrogallate from 30 grammes of pyrogallic acid is sufficient to absorb nearly 1500 c.c. of pure oxygen, so that a composite pipette filled in this way, and securely sealed by the water in the third and fourth bulbs, will last for a great number of analyses.

Another composite pipette for absorbing carbon monoxide is filled, as above described, with a saturated solution of cuprous chloride in hydrochloric acid (1.1 sp. gr.) and sealed with water. Each pipette should be distinctly labelled with the name of the reagent, so that no mistake can be made in using them.

It is worthy of note that the absorption of carbon monoxide by cuprous chloride is purely mechanical, and is never absolutely perfect, so that a small amount of carbon monoxide *invariably* remains in the gas after treatment in the cuprous chloride pipette. Moreover, whenever a gas absolutely free from carbon monoxide is treated in a cuprous chloride pipette (which has previously been used to absorb carbon monoxide) and returned to the burette, it will be found to have *increased* in volume, and subsequent combustion in a palladium tube will yield an

amount of carbonic acid corresponding to this increase counted as carbon monoxide. If this fact is overlooked, the carbon monoxide left in the gas will be counted as methane if a determination of this gas is made in the usual course of the analysis.

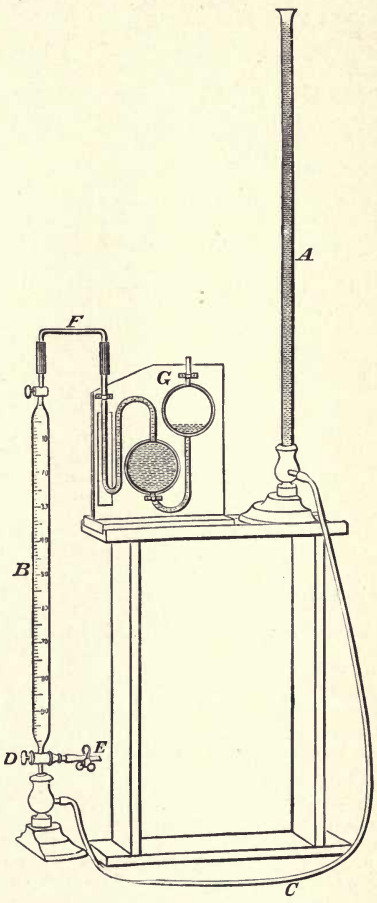
A composite pipette filled with bromine-water to absorb ethylene (C_2H_4) is sometimes used, as this gas has been found in the gases from blast-furnaces and producers using bituminous coal. But the amount of ethylene is very small, and a separate determination is rarely made, any small amount being absorbed and determined as carbon monoxide.

ANALYSIS OF THE SAMPLE.

The burette containing the gas, with the level-tube filled with water attached, as mentioned on page 299, having attained the temperature of the laboratory, raise the level-tube and open the three-way stopcock so that the passage is open for the water to enter the burette. If the gas is shown to be under a slight pressure, by raising or lowering the burette bring the water just to the stopcock (if the burette is graduated to read 100 c.c. from stopcock to stopcock, otherwise bring the water to the 0 mark), and close the stopcock. Then open the upper stopcock for an instant to allow the gas to assume the pressure of the atmosphere. Now open the three-way stopcock to allow the water to enter the burette, hold the level-tube so that the water in the tube and that in the burette are at the same level, and observe the reading of the burette. It is a very simple matter in this way to get exactly 100 c.c. of gas, which very materially simplifies the calculations. Connect the burette with the pipette containing caustic potash by means of the capillary connecting-tube, as shown in Fig. 106. Some little skill is necessary in making this connection; the best way to arrange it is as follows. Attach one end of the capillary connecting-tube to the top of the burette by a piece of rubber tubing, wiring it if necessary, then compress between the thumb and forefinger of one hand the rubber tube on the capillary of the pipette for its entire length above the pinchcock (as shown in Fig. 105), then carefully introduce the end of the capillary connecting-tube into the end of

the rubber tube and release the rubber tube. If this is carefully done the walls of the rubber tube between the pinchcock and the end of the capillary will remain in contact, showing that no air has been admitted. Force the end of the capillary tube down to the pinchcock, and open the latter, allowing it to remain over the capillary as shown in Fig. 107. The apparatus will now be in the position shown in Fig. 106. Open the upper stopcock of the burette, and then turn the three-way stopcock D carefully to admit the water from the level-tube into the burette. As the water enters the burette the gas is forced over into the pipette G. Allow the water to completely fill the burette B and to enter the capillary tube F and fill it as far as the rubber connection between it and the capillary tube of the pipette G. Close the upper stopcock of the burette, place the pinchcock on the rubber tube between the capillary connecting-tube and the pipette, and remove the capillary connecting-tube F from the rubber tube of the pipette, leaving it attached to the burette. Take the pipette from the stand and shake it, to promote the absorption of the carbonic acid, which will require only a minute or two. Replace the pipette, attach the capillary connecting-tube F as before, remove the pinchcock, place the level-tube A on the floor, open the upper stopcock of the burette, and allow the water to run from the burette B into the level-tube A, drawing the gas from the pipette G into the burette B. When the caustic potash solution has run back so as to fill the large bulb and the capillary of the pipette almost to the

FIG. 106.



rubber connection, quickly close the upper stopcock of the burette B, replace the pinchcock on the rubber tube of the pipette G, detach the capillary connecting-tube F from the pipette, hold the level-tube A and the burette B together to get the water on an exact level, and take the reading of the burette. The difference between this reading and the original reading will be the number of c.c. of carbonic acid absorbed; and if the original reading was 100 c.c., each c.c. absorbed will be one per cent. of carbonic acid in the gas. If any other volume of gas was originally used, divide the number of c.c. absorbed by the number originally used, multiply this by 100, and the result is the percentage of carbonic acid in the gas.

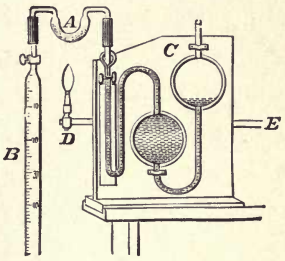
If ethylene is to be determined, pass the gas into the bromine-water pipette, back into the burette, then into the caustic potash pipette to absorb any bromine fumes, finally back into the burette, and take the reading as before. The contraction is ethylene.

Now pass the gas into the pyrogallol pipette, shake the latter gently for four or five minutes to promote the absorption of the oxygen, return the gas to the burette, and note the reading. The contraction from the last reading is oxygen.

Pass the gas in the same manner into the cuprous chloride pipette, detach and shake the latter gently at short intervals for five or six minutes to promote the absorption of the carbon monoxide, return the gas to the burette, and take the reading. The contraction from the last reading is the carbon monoxide absorbed by cuprous chloride. To determine the remaining carbon monoxide and the hydrogen, the gas is mixed with oxygen and burned over spongy palladium. Fig. 107 shows the arrangement of the apparatus. A is the palladium tube, B the burette, C a pipette filled with water, D a small gas-burner for heating the palladium tube, and E the gas-pipe attached to the wood-work of the pipette and connected by a rubber tube with a supply of gas. Instead of a gas-burner for heating the palladium tube a small brass spirit-lamp may be used, which is fastened to the pipette-stand by a clamp in such a position as to bring the flame under the palladium tube. With any ordinary furnace or producer gas which contains 50 per cent. and upwards of nitrogen, the

best plan is to attach an oxygen-cylinder to the top of the burette, using a capillary-tube and rubber connections, and fill the latter with oxygen gas. With water-gas, or when a supply of oxygen is not available, it is necessary to transfer a portion of the unabsorbed gas in the burette to another burette, and then to admit air to the first burette until it is nearly filled. Of course it makes the calculation a little more complicated to change the volume of the gas in this way during the progress of an analysis, but in the case of nearly pure water-gas the use of oxygen alone would probably lead to an explosion, while with other gases, in the absence of a supply of oxygen, simply filling the burette with air without letting out any of the gas might not admit enough oxygen to burn the hydrogen. After transferring a portion of the unabsorbed gas, read the burette carefully to get the volume of gas taken for combustion, and then *divide the volume of gas taken for combustion by the total volume unabsorbed, and multiply by the amount originally taken for analysis;* the result is the number of c.c. of *the original gas*, to which the amount taken for combustion corresponds.

FIG. 107.



After admitting air to the burette, which is done by standing the level-tube on the floor while the burette is on the table, opening the three-way stopcock so that the water may run into the level-tube, and opening the upper stopcock of the burette until the proper amount of air has been drawn in, take the reading of the burette with care. Connect the apparatus as shown in Fig. 107, light the gas-jet D, open the upper stopcock of the burette B, and by opening very carefully the three-way stopcock of the burette cause the gas to pass *very slowly* into the pipette C. The palladium tube should not be heated to redness, but to a temperature just below a dark-red heat. It is very necessary to avoid carrying over any water into the hot palladium tube, as it would be certain to crack it, and for this reason it is well to see that the capillary tube above the stopcock of the burette and both capillary ends of the palladium tube are dry before making the connections. Any little moisture may be

removed by means of a very fine wire wrapped with thread. As the water from the combustion of the hydrogen in the palladium is liable to condense in the end of the tube near the pipette, it is always well to warm this gently with the flame of a small spirit-lamp or a piece of glowing charcoal, so as to drive all the moisture into the pipette, and thus prevent its being carried into the hot part of the palladium tube when the gas is returned into the burette. When the water has risen in the burette just above the upper stopcock, lower the level-tube and draw the gas back very slowly into the burette. When the water in the pipette has risen to the usual position in the capillary, replace the pinchcock on the rubber connection between the palladium tube and the capillary tube of the pipette, extinguish the light under the palladium tube, and, when the latter is cold, close the upper stopcock of the burette, detach the apparatus, open the three-way stopcock fully, and take the reading of the burette.

Now, if there were no carbon monoxide present in the gas before the combustion, the contraction would be due to the condensation of the water formed by the combustion of the hydrogen, and, as 2 volumes of hydrogen unite with 1 volume of oxygen to form water, $\frac{2}{3}$ of the contraction would be hydrogen. In the presence of carbon monoxide, however, there is an additional contraction beyond that caused by the formation of water, due to the fact that 2 volumes of carbon monoxide uniting with 1 volume of oxygen form 2 volumes of carbonic acid. By absorbing the carbonic acid in the caustic potash pipette, and then reading the burette, the second contraction is the volume of the carbonic acid, which is the volume of the carbon monoxide. The first contraction, then, is $\frac{3}{2}$ of the hydrogen + $\frac{1}{2}$ the carbon monoxide, and the second contraction being the volume of the carbon monoxide, it may be stated thus:

$$\text{first contraction} = \tfrac{3}{2}\ \text{hydrogen} + \tfrac{1}{2}\ \text{second contraction},$$

or

$$\tfrac{3}{2}\ \text{hydrogen} = \text{first contraction} - \tfrac{1}{2}\ \text{second contraction};$$

multiplying by $\frac{2}{3}$,

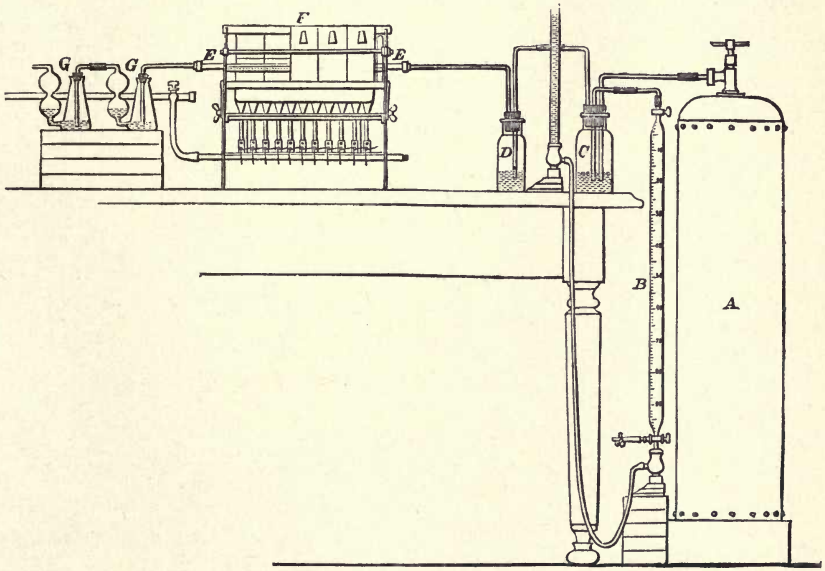
$$\text{Hydrogen} = \tfrac{2}{3}\ \text{first contraction} - \tfrac{1}{3}\ \text{second contraction}.$$

Divide the number of c.c. of hydrogen and carbon monoxide respectively as found above by the number of c.c. of the original gas to which the amount taken for combustion is equivalent, multiply by 100, and the result

is the percentage of hydrogen and carbon monoxide. This percentage of carbon monoxide is to be added to the percentage found by absorption in cuprous chloride, and the result is the total carbon monoxide.

There remain now in the burette only nitrogen and methane. The latter can be properly burned only at a red heat in contact with copper oxide, forming water and carbonic acid. By absorbing the carbonic acid in a solution of barium hydroxide, standardized by a normal solution of oxalic acid, and then titrating the barium hydroxide, the volume of methane is at once indicated. As the normal solution of oxalic acid indicates the volume of methane at 760 mm. of barometric pressure and 0° C. of temperature, the thermometer and barometer must be noted, and the correction made according to the table (Table V.).

FIG. 108.



Dissolve 5.6314 grammes of crystallized oxalic acid in 1 litre of water. 1 c.c. of this solution indicates 1 c.c. carbonic acid, or 1 c.c. methane, at 760 mm. barometric pressure and 0° C. Dissolve 14.0835 grammes of crystallized barium hydroxide in 1 litre of water. 1 c.c. of this solution is equal to about 1 c.c. of the oxalic acid solution.

The apparatus for the determination is shown in Fig. 108. It consists of a porcelain tube, EE, in the combustion-furnace F; the porcelain tube is nearly filled with coarse copper oxide between loose plugs of asbestos, or with a roll of oxidized copper wire (see page 142). The forward end is connected with two absorption-bottles, G, G, containing barium hydroxide solution. These bottles are of such a size that 25 c.c. will fill them, so that the gas in bubbling through forces a little of the solution up into the bulb-tube, thus prolonging the contact. If they are a little too large, the solution of barium hydroxide may be diluted, after it is measured in from the pipette, with a little distilled water to bring it to the proper volume. A is a cylinder containing oxygen under pressure, or, if this is not available, a couple of bottles for forcing air through the apparatus may be substituted (such as those shown in Fig. 57, page 131). The cylinder and the burette B are connected, as shown in the sketch (Fig. 108), by means of capillary tubes with the bottle C, containing caustic potash (1.27 sp. gr.). The bottle C is connected with the bottle D, containing sulphuric acid, and from D a capillary tube passes to the rubber stopper in the end of the porcelain tube EE. Start a current of oxygen or air through the apparatus (before attaching the absorption-bottles G, G), light the burners of the furnace, and raise the temperature gradually until the tube is red hot. Continue the passage of the oxygen until a bottle containing a solution of barium hydroxide attached to the end of the tube shows that no carbonic acid is given off. Measure out 25 c.c. of the barium hydroxide solution into each of the bottles G, G, and attach them as shown in Fig. 108, open the upper stopcock of the burette B, and by means of the three-way stopcock let water into the burette from the level-tube, so that the gas from the burette is made to bubble very slowly into the bottle C. About three or four bubbles should pass into C from the oxygen cylinder to one from the burette. When the water completely fills the burette and the capillary tube in C, close the upper stopcock of the burette, and continue the passage of the oxygen from A until it is certain that all the gas has been carried through the porcelain tube and the absorption-bottles. In the mean time measure out 25 or 50 c.c. of the barium hydroxide solution into a porcelain dish, dilute with water, add a

drop of phenolphthalein solution (made by dissolving phenolphthalein in alcohol), and from a burette run in the standard solution of oxalic acid until the pink color of the solution just vanishes. This will give the value of the barium hydroxide solution in terms of the normal oxalic acid solution. When the combustion is finished, detach the absorption-bottles, wash their contents into the dish, add a drop of phenolphthalein solution, and titrate with the oxalic acid solution. The difference between the value of 50 c.c. barium hydroxide solution and that of the 50 c.c. from the absorption-bottles, in terms of the oxalic acid solution, is the number of c.c. of methane in the gas burned at 760 mm. barometric pressure and 0° C. Divide this by the number of c.c. burned, reduced to 760 mm. pressure and 0° C., multiply by 100, and the result is the volume per cent. of methane. Add together the percentages obtained of carbonic acid (ethylene, C_2H_4), oxygen, carbon monoxide, hydrogen, and methane, subtract the sum from 100, and the remainder is the percentage of nitrogen by difference.

An example will illustrate the method of analysis, thus:

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EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS.

Siemens' Producer Gas.

Volume of gas employed, 99.7 c.c.

KHO pipette	93.5 c.c.	Contraction,	6.2 c.c.	CO_2	= 6.21 %
Pyrogallol pipette	93.3 "	"	0.2 "	O	= 0.20 "
CuCl "	74.0 "	"	19.3 " = 19.36 %	CO	
Transferred a portion.		From palladium combustion	1.42 "	CO (total)	= 20.78 "
Remaining in pipette . . .	46.8 "			H	= 11.23 "
= of original gas to . . .	63.24 "	$\left[\frac{46.8}{74} \times 99.7\right]$		CH_4	= 3.14 "
Admitted air to	98.4 "			N	= 58.44 "
					100.00 "
Burned over palladium . .	87.3 "				
First contraction	11.1 "				
KHO pipette	86.4 "				

Second contraction . . . . 0.9 " $= CO_2 = CO\left[\frac{0.9}{63.24} \times 100\right] = 1.42$ % CO.

$H = \frac{2}{3}[11.1] - \frac{1}{3}[0.9] = 7.1$ c.c. $\left[\frac{7.1}{63.24} \times 100\right] = 11.23$ % H.

Burned residue over oxide of copper and absorbed CO_2 in caustic baryta solution.

Thermometer 17° C. Barometer 745 mm. 745.0 — 14.4 = 730.6

7	.0086702 ×	100	= .86702
3	.0037158 ×	10	= .037158
0	×	1	= .000000
6	.0074316 ×	0.1	= .00074316
			.90492116

63.24 c.c. × .90492116 = 57.23 c.c. at 760 mm. and 0° C.

50 c.c. caustic baryta solution = 48.3 c.c. oxalic acid

After combustion 50 c.c. " " " = 46.5 " " "

Therefore CH_4 in gas burned = 1.8 "

and $\frac{1.8}{57.23} \times 100 = 3.14$ % CH_4.

TABLE I.

Atomic Weights of the Elements used in this Volume.

Name.	Symbol.	At. Wt.	Name.	Symbol.	At. Wt.
Aluminum	Al	27.07	Manganese	Mn	55.00
Antimony	Sb	120.00	Molybdenum	Mo	96.00
Arsenic	As	75.00	Nickel	Ni	58.70
Barium	Ba	137.00	Nitrogen	N	14.03
Bromine	Br	79.95	Oxygen	O	16.00
Calcium	Ca	40.08	Phosphorus	P	30.97
Carbon	C	12.00	Platinum	Pt	194.87
Chlorine	Cl	35.45	Potassium	K	39.11
Chromium	Cr	52.14	Silicon	Si	28.40
Cobalt	Co	59.00	Sodium	Na	23.05
Copper	Cu	63.40	Sulphur	S	32.06
Hydrogen	H	1.007	Tin	Sn	119.00
Iodine	I	126.85	Titanium	Ti	48.00
Iron	Fe	56.00	Tungsten	W	184.00
Lead	Pb	206.95	Vanadium	V	51.37
Magnesium	Mg	24.29	Zinc	Zn	65.27

TABLE II.

Table of Factors.

Found.	Required.	Factor.	Log.
$AlPO_4$	Al	0.22181	9.3459811–10
Al_2O_3	Al	0.53005	9.7243168–10
Sb_2O_4	Sb	0.78947	9.8973356–10
Sb_2S_3	Sb	0.71390	9.8536374–10
$Mg_2(NH_4)_2As_2O_8 + H_2O$	As	0.39400	9.5954962–10
$Mg_2As_2O_7$	As	0.48297	9.6839202–10
As_2S_3	As	0.60931	9.7848383–10
As	$FeAs_2$	1.37333	0.1377749
$BaSO_4$	S	0.13756	9.1384922–10
	SO_3	0.34352	9.5359520–10
$CaSO_4$	CaO	0.41193	9.6148234–10
	$CaCO_3$	0.73513	9.8663641–10
CaO	$CaCO_3$	1.78459	0.2515385
CO_2	C	0.27273	9.4357329–10
Cr_2O_3	Cr	0.68479	9.8355574–10
$CoSO_4$	Co	0.38050	9.5803547–10
	CoO	0.48370	9.6845761–10
Co	CoO	1.27119	0.1042105
CoO	Co	0.78667	9.8957926–10
Cu	CuO	1.25240	0.0977431
	Cu_2S	1.25284	0.0978956
CuO	Cu	0.79849	9.9022695–10
Cu_2S	Cu	0.79818	9.9021008–10
Fe_2O_3	Fe	0.70000	9.8450980–10
Fe	Fe_3O_4	1.38095	0.1401779
	FeO	1.28571	0.1091430
$PbSO_4$	Pb	0.68298	9.8344080–10
	PbO	0.73578	9.8667480–10
	PbS	0.78879	9.8969614–10

TABLE II.—Continued.

Found.	Required.	Factor.	Log.
$Mg_2P_2O_7$	P	0.27836	9.4446068–10
	P_2O_5	0.63788	9.8047390–10
	MgO	0.36212	9.5588525–10
	$MgCO_3$	0.75760	9.8794400–10
Mn_3O_4	Mn	0.72052	9.8576460–10
	MnO	0.93013	9.9685437–10
$Mn_2P_2O_7$	Mn	0.38741	9.5881708–10
	MnO	0.50011	9.6990655–10
MnS	Mn	0.63175	9.8005453–10
	MnO	0.81553	9.9114399–10
$(NH_4)_3{}_{11}MoO_3PO_4$	P	0.01630	8.2121876–10
	P_2O_5	0.03735	8.5722906–10
NiO	Ni	0.78581	9.8953176–10
Ni_2S	Ni	0.78549	9.8951407–10
K_2PtCl_6	KCl	0.30696	9.4870818–10
	K_2O	0.19395	9.2876898–10
KCl	K_2CO_3	0.92690	9.9670329–10
NaCl	Na_2O	0.53077	9.7249064–10
	Na_2CO_3	0.90684	9.9575307–10
SiO_2	Si	0.47020	9.6722826–10
S	FeS_2	1.87336	0.2726212
SnO_2	Sn	0.78808	9.8965703–10
TiO_2	Ti	0.60000	9.7781513–10
V_2O_5	V	0.56222	9.7499063–10
WO_3	W	0.79310	9.8993279–10
ZnO	Zn	0.80313	9.9047858–10

TABLE III.

Percentages of P and P_2O_5 for each Milligramme of $Mg_2P_2O_7$ when 10 Grammes of the Sample are used.

Wt. of $Mg_2P_2O_7$.	P.	P_2O_5.	Wt. of $Mg_2P_2O_7$.	P.	P_2O_5.	Wt. of $Mg_2P_2O_7$.	P.	P_2O_5.	Wt of $Mg_2P_2O_7$.	P.	P_2O_5.
1	0.003	0.006	26	0.073	0.166	51	0.142	0.326	76	0.212	0.486
2	0.005	0.013	27	0.075	0.173	52	0.145	0.332	77	0.215	0.492
3	0.008	0.019	28	0.078	0.179	53	0.148	0.339	78	0.218	0.499
4	0.011	0.026	29	0.081	0.185	54	0.151	0.345	79	0.221	0.505
5	0.014	0.032	30	0.084	0.192	55	0.154	0.352	80	0.223	0.512
6	0.017	0.038	31	0.086	0.198	56	0.156	0.358	81	0.226	0.518
7	0.019	0.045	32	0.089	0.204	57	0.159	0.364	82	0.229	0.524
8	0.022	0.051	33	0.092	0.211	58	0.162	0.371	83	0.232	0.531
9	0.025	0.057	34	0.095	0.217	59	0.165	0.377	84	0.235	0.537
10	0.028	0.064	35	0.098	0.224	60	0.167	0.384	85	0.237	0.544
11	0.031	0.070	36	0.101	0.230	61	0.170	0.390	86	0.240	0.550
12	0.033	0.077	37	0.103	0.237	62	0.173	0.396	87	0.243	0.556
13	0.036	0.083	38	0.106	0.243	63	0.176	0.403	88	0.246	0.563
14	0.039	0.089	39	0.109	0.249	64	0.179	0.409	89	0.248	0.569
15	0.042	0.096	40	0.112	0.256	65	0.181	0.416	90	0.251	0.576
16	0.045	0.102	41	0.114	0.262	66	0.184	0.422	91	0.254	0.582
17	0.047	0.108	42	0.117	0.269	67	0.187	0.428	92	0.257	0.588
18	0.050	0.115	43	0.120	0.275	68	0.190	0.434	93	0.259	0.595
19	0.053	0.121	44	0.123	0.281	69	0.193	0.441	94	0.262	0.601
20	0.056	0.128	45	0.126	0.287	70	0.195	0.448	95	0.265	0.607
21	0.059	0.134	46	0.128	0.294	71	0.198	0.454	96	0.268	0.614
22	0.061	0.141	47	0.131	0.300	72	0.201	0.460	97	0.271	0.620
23	0.064	0.147	48	0.134	0.307	73	0.204	0.467	98	0.274	0.627
24	0.067	0.153	49	0.137	0.313	74	0.207	0.473	99	0.276	0.633
25	0.070	0.159	50	0.139	0.319	75	0.209	0.479	100	0.278	0.638

TABLE IV.

Tension of Aqueous Vapor in Millimetres of Mercury from 0° to 34.9° C.

°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.	°	Mm.
0.0	4.600	2.5	5.491	5.0	6.534	7.5	7.751	10.0	9.165	12.5	10.804	15.0	12.699	17.5	14.882	20.0	17.391	22.5	20.265	25.0	23.550	27.5	27.294	30.0	31.548	32.5	36.370
.1	.633	.6	.530	.1	.580	.6	.804	.1	.227	.6	.875	.1	.781	.6	.977	.1	.500	.6	.389	.1	.692	.6	.455	.1	.729	.6	.576
.2	.667	.7	.569	.2	.625	.7	.857	.2	.288	.7	.947	.2	.864	.7	15.072	.2	.608	.7	.514	.2	.834	.7	.617	.2	.911	.7	.783
.3	.700	.8	.608	.3	.671	.8	.910	.3	.350	.8	11.019	.3	.947	.8	.167	.3	.717	.8	.639	.3	.976	.8	.778	.3	32.094	.8	.991
.4	.733	.9	.647	.4	.717	.9	.964	.4	.412	.9	.090	.4	13.029	.9	.262	.4	.826	.9	.763	.4	24.119	.9	.939	.4	.278	.9	37.200
.5	.767	3.0	.687	.5	.763	8.0	8.017	.5	.474	13.0	.162	.5	.112	18.0	.357	.5	.935	23.0	.888	.5	.261	28.0	28.101	.5	.463	33.0	.410
.6	.801	.1	.727	.6	.810	.1	.072	.6	.537	.1	.235	.6	.197	.1	.454	.6	18.047	.1	21.016	.6	.406	.1	.267	.6	.650	.1	.621
.7	.836	.2	.767	.7	.857	.2	.126	.7	.601	.2	.309	.7	.281	.2	.552	.7	.159	.2	.144	.7	.552	.2	.433	.7	.837	.2	.832
.8	.871	.3	.807	.8	.904	.3	.181	.8	.665	.3	.383	.8	.366	.3	.650	.8	.271	.3	.272	.8	.697	.3	.599	.8	33.026	.3	38.045
.9	.905	.4	.848	.9	.951	.4	.236	.9	.728	.4	.456	.9	.451	.4	.747	.9	.383	.4	.400	.9	.842	.4	.765	.9	.215	.4	.258
1.0	.940	.5	.889	6.0	.998	.5	.291	11.0	.792	.5	.530	16.0	.536	.5	.845	21.0	.495	.5	.528	26.0	.988	.5	.931	31.0	.405	.5	.473
.1	.975	.6	.930	.1	7.047	.6	.347	.1	.857	.6	.605	.1	.623	.6	.945	.1	.610	.6	.659	.1	25.138	.6	29.101	.1	.596	.6	.689
.2	5.011	.7	.972	.2	.095	.7	.404	.2	.923	.7	.681	.2	.710	.7	16.045	.2	.724	.7	.790	.2	.288	.7	.271	.2	.787	.7	.906
.3	.047	.8	6.014	.3	.144	.8	.461	.3	.989	.8	.757	.3	.797	.8	.145	.3	.839	.8	.921	.3	.438	.8	.441	.3	.980	.8	39.124
.4	.082	.9	.055	.4	.193	.9	.517	.4	10.054	.9	.832	.4	.885	.9	.246	.4	.954	.9	22.058	.4	.588	.9	.612	.4	34.174	.9	.344
.5	.118	4.0	.097	.5	.242	9.0	.574	.5	.120	14.0	.908	.5	.972	19.0	.346	.5	19.069	24 0	.184	.5	.738	29.0	.782	.5	.368	34.0	.565
.6	.155	.1	.140	.6	.292	.1	.632	.6	.187	.1	.986	.6	14.062	.1	.449	.6	.187	.1	.319	.6	.891	.1	.956	.6	.564	.1	.786
.7	.191	.2	.183	.7	.342	.2	.690	.7	.255	.2	12.064	.7	.151	.2	.552	.7	.305	.2	.453	.7	26.045	.2	30.131	.7	.761	.2	40.007
.8	.228	.3	.226	.8	.392	.3	.748	.8	.322	.3	.142	.8	.241	.3	.655	.8	.423	.3	.588	.8	.198	.3	.305	.8	.959	.3	.230
.9	.265	.4	.270	.9	.442	.4	.807	.9	.389	.4	.220	.9	.331	.4	.758	.9	.541	.4	.723	.9	.351	.4	.479	.9	35.159	.4	.455
2.0	.302	.5	.313	7.0	.492	.5	.865	12.0	.457	.5	.298	17.0	.421	.5	.861	22.0	.659	.5	.858	27.0	.505	.5	.654	32.0	.359	.5	.680
.1	.340	.6	.357	.1	.544	.6	.925	.1	.526	.6	.378	.1	.513	.6	.967	.1	.780	.6	.996	.1	.663	.6	.833	.1	.559	.6	.907
.2	.378	.7	.407	.2	.595	.7	.985	.2	.596	.7	.458	.2	.605	.7	17.073	.2	.901	.7	23.135	.2	.820	.7	31.011	.2	.760	.7	41.135
.3	.416	.8	.445	.3	.647	.8	9.045	.3	.665	.8	.538	.3	.697	.8	.179	.3	20.022	.8	.273	.3	.978	.8	.190	.3	.962	.8	.364
.4	.454	.9	.490	.4	.699	.9	.105	.4	.734	.9	.619	.4	.790	.9	285	.4	.143	.9	.411	.4	27.136	.9	.369	.4	36.165	.9	.595

TABLE V.

Table for Reducing Volumes of Gases to the Normal State.

BY PROFESSOR DR. LEO LIEBERMANN.

(From Winkler's "Technical Gas Analysis.")

Instructions for Use.

Suppose the volume of a gas to have been found = 26.2 c.c. at 742 mm. barometric pressure, 18° C. temperature, saturated with moisture. In order to reduce it to the normal state (760 mm., 0° C., dry), we proceed as follows:

1st. Look out the degree 18 (columns 1 and 4), and deduct the tension of aqueous vapor given, = 15.3 mm., from the observed pressure, = 742.0:

$$742.0 - 15.3 = 726.7 \text{ mm.}$$

2d. Now find the volume which 1 vol. of the gas would have at the pressure of 726.7 mm. by looking out seriatim the figures 7, 2, 6, and 7 in column 2 at the temperature 18°, and placing the numerical values, to be found opposite those figures, in the same column, multiplying them seriatim by 100, 10, 1, 0.1; whereupon they are added up, thus:

$$\begin{array}{llll} 7 & 0.0086408 \times & 100 & = 0.86408 \\ 2 & 0.0024688 \times & 10 & = 0.024688 \\ 6 & 0.0074064 \times & 1 & = 0.0074064 \\ 7 & 0.0086408 \times & 0.1 & = 0.00086408 \\ & & & \overline{0.89703848} \end{array}$$

3d. The corrected volume of a cubic centimetre is lastly multiplied by the number of the c.c. previously found; that is, in the present case,

$$0.89703848 \times 26.2 = 23.502 \text{ c.c.}$$

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.
0	1	0.0013157		0	6	0.0078946	
0	2	0.0026315		0	7	0.0092104	
0	3	0.0039473		0	8	0.0105262	
0	4	0.0052631		0	9	0.0118420	
0	5	0.0065789	0° = 4.5				

TABLE V.—Continued.

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.
1	1	0.0013109		4	1	0.0012965	
1	2	0.0026219		4	2	0.0025930	
1	3	0.0039328		4	3	0.0038895	
1	4	0.0052438		4	4	0.0051860	
1	5	0.0065548	1° = 4.9	4	5	0.0064825	4° = 6.0
1	6	0.0078657		4	6	0.0077790	
1	7	0.0091767		4	7	0.0090755	
1	8	0.0104876		4	8	0.0103720	
1	9	0.0117986		4	9	0.0116685	
2	1	0.0013061		5	1	0.0012916	
2	2	0.0026123		5	2	0.0025833	
2	3	0.0039184		5	3	0.0038750	
2	4	0.0052246		5	4	0.0051667	
2	5	0.0065307	2° = 5.3	5	5	0.0064584	5° = 6.5
2	6	0.0078369		5	6	0.0077501	
2	7	0.0091430		5	7	0.0090418	
2	8	0.0104492		5	8	0.0103335	
2	9	0.0117553		5	9	0.0116252	
3	1	0.0013013		6	1	0.0012868	
3	2	0.0026026		6	2	0.0025737	
3	3	0.0039039		6	3	0.0038606	
3	4	0.0052053		6	4	0.0051474	
3	5	0.0065066	3° = 5.6	6	5	0.0064343	6° = 6.9
3	6	0.0078079		6	6	0.0077212	
3	7	0.0091093		6	7	0.0090080	
3	8	0.0104106		6	8	0.0102949	
3	9	0.0117119		6	9	0.0145818	

TABLE V.—Continued.

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim of mercury for ° C.
7	1	0.0012828		10	1	0.0012692	
7	2	0.0025656		10	2	0.0025384	
7	3	0.0038484		10	3	0.0038076	
7	4	0.0051312		10	4	0.0050768	
7	5	0.0064140	7° = 7.4	10	5	0.0063460	10° = 9.1
7	6	0.0076968		10	6	0.0076152	
7	7	0.0089796		10	7	0.0088844	
7	8	0.0102624		10	8	0.0101536	
7	9	0.0115452		10	9	0.0114228	
8	1	0.0012783		11	1	0.0012648	
8	2	0.0025566		11	2	0.0025296	
8	3	0.0038349		11	3	0.0037944	
8	4	0.0051132		11	4	0.0050592	
8	5	0.0063915	8° = 8.0	11	5	0.0063240	11° = 9.7
8	6	0.0076698		11	6	0.0075888	
8	7	0.0089481		11	7	0.0088536	
8	8	0.0102264		11	8	0.0101184	
8	9	0.0115047		11	9	0.0113832	
9	1	0.0012737		12	1	0.0012603	
9	2	0.0025474		12	2	0.0025206	
9	3	0.0038211		12	3	0.0037809	
9	4	0.0050948		12	4	0.0050412	
9	5	0.0063685	9° = 8.5	12	5	0.0063015	12° = 10.4
9	6	0.0076422		12	6	0.0075618	
9	7	0.0089159		12	7	0.0088221	
9	8	0.0101896		12	8	0.0100824	
9	9	0.0114633		12	9	0.0113427	

TABLE V.—Continued.

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.
13	1	0.0012559		16	1	0.0012429	
13	2	0.0025118		16	2	0.0024858	
13	3	0.0037677		16	3	0.0037287	
13	4	0.0050236		16	4	0.0049716	
13	5	0.0062795	13° = 11.1	16	5	0.0062145	16° = 13.5
13	6	0.0075354		16	6	0.0074574	
13	7	0.0087913		16	7	0.0087003	
13	8	0.0100472		16	8	0.0099432	
13	9	0.0113031		16	9	0.0111861	
14	1	0.0012516		17	1	0.0012386	
14	2	0.0025032		17	2	0.0024772	
14	3	0.0037548		17	3	0.0037158	
14	4	0.0050064		17	4	0.0049544	
14	5	0.0062580	14° = 11.9	17	5	0.0061930	17° = 14.4
14	6	0.0075096		17	6	0.0074316	
14	7	0.0087612		17	7	0.0086702	
14	8	0.0100128		17	8	0.0099088	
14	9	0.0112644		17	9	0.0111474	
15	1	0.0012472		18	1	0.0012344	
15	2	0.0024944		18	2	0.0024688	
15	3	0.0037416		18	3	0.0037032	
15	4	0.0049888		18	4	0.0049376	
15	5	0.0062360	15° = 12.7	18	5	0.0061720	18° = 15.3
15	6	0.0074832		18	6	0.0074064	
15	7	0.0087304		18	7	0.0086408	
15	8	0.0099776		18	8	0.0098752	
15	9	0.0112248		18	9	0.0111096	

TABLE V.—Continued.

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.
19	1	0.0012301		22	1	0.0012176	
19	2	0.0024602		22	2	0.0024352	
19	3	0.0036903		22	3	0.0036528	
19	4	0.0049204		22	4	0.0048704	
19	5	0.0061505	19° = 16.3	22	5	0.0060880	22° = 19.6
19	6	0.0073806		22	6	0.0073056	
19	7	0.0086107		22	7	0.0085232	
19	8	0.0098408		22	8	0.0097408	
19	9	0.0110709		22	9	0.0109584	
20	1	0.0012259		23	1	0.0012135	
20	2	0.0024518		23	2	0.0024270	
20	3	0.0036777		23	3	0.0036405	
20	4	0.0049036		23	4	0.0048540	
20	5	0.0061295	20° = 17.4	23	5	0.0060675	23° = 20.9
20	6	0.0073554		23	6	0.0072810	
20	7	0.0085813		23	7	0.0084945	
20	8	0.0098122		23	8	0.0097080	
20	9	0.0110331		23	9	0.0109215	
21	1	0.0012218		24	1	0.0012094	
21	2	0.0024436		24	2	0.0024188	
21	3	0.0036654		24	3	0.0036282	
21	4	0.0048872		24	4	0.0048376	
21	5	0.0061090	21° = 18.5	24	5	0.0060470	24° = 22.2
21	6	0.0073308		24	6	0.0072564	
21	7	0.0085526		24	7	0.0084658	
21	8	0.0097744		24	8	0.0096752	
21	9	0.0109962		24	9	0.0108846	

TABLE V.—Continued.

Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.	Temperature ° C.	Pressure in millims. mercury.	Volume at 0° and 760 mm.	Tension of aq. vapor in millim. of mercury for ° C.
25	1	0.0012054		28	1	0.0011933	
25	2	0.0024108		28	2	0.0023866	
25	3	0.0036162		28	3	0.0035799	
25	4	0.0048216		28	4	0.0047732	
25	5	0.0060270	25° = 23.5	28	5	0.0059665	28° = 28.1
25	6	0.0072324		28	6	0.0071598	
25	7	0.0084378		28	7	0.0083531	
25	8	0.0096432		28	8	0.0095464	
25	9	0.0108486		28	9	0.0107397	
26	1	0.0012013		29	1	0.0011894	
26	2	0.0024026		29	2	0.0023788	
26	3	0.0036039		29	3	0.0035682	
26	4	0.0048052		29	4	0.0047576	
26	5	0.0060065	26° = 25.0	29	5	0.0059470	29° = 29.8
26	6	0.0072078		29	6	0.0071364	
26	7	0.0084091		29	7	0.0083258	
26	8	0.0096104		29	8	0.0095152	
26	9	0.0108117		29	9	0.0107046	
27	1	0.0011973		30	1	0.0011855	
27	2	0.0023946		30	2	0.0023710	
27	3	0.0035919		30	3	0.0035565	
27	4	0.0047892		30	4	0.0047420	
27	5	0.0059865	27° = 26.5	30	5	0.0059275	30° = 31.6
27	6	0.0071838		30	6	0.0071130	
27	7	0.0083811		30	7	0.0082985	
27	8	0.0095784		30	8	0.0094840	
27	9	0.0107757		30	9	0.0106695	

INDEX.

PAGE

Absorption apparatus for carbon dioxide in carbon determinations 137, 153
precautions in weighing 138
Acetic acid, reagent 40
Acids and halogens 38
Air-bath 19
Air-blast with Richards's injector 24
Alcohol lamps 23
Alkalies, determination of, in clay 279
determination of, in iron ores 264
Alkaline earths, salts of 51
salts 44
Allen, determination of nitrogen in iron and steel 207
Alumina reagent, in direct combustion of steel, 135
Alumina and ferric oxide, separation of 257
by ammonium sulphide 257, 276
by caustic potash or soda 258
by sodium hyposulphite 198, 259
by volatilization of the iron in a current of hydrochloric acid gas after reduction by hydrogen 259
Aluminum, determination of, in iron and steel 196
Carnot's method 197
ether method 198
Stead's method 196
separation of, from chromium, ... 194, 198
Ammonia, reagent 44
Ammonium acetate, reagent 45
bisulphite, reagent 44
chloride, reagent 45
fluoride, reagent 45
nitrate, reagent 45
oxalate reagent 46
quantity required in the determination of lime in limestone 274
Ammonium sulphide, reagent 44
salts, decomposition of, by nitric acid . . . 265
Apparatus 11
general laboratory 18
Arsenic, determination of, as arsenious sulphide 199
as magnesium arsenate 200
by distillation 199
in iron and steel 199
Arsenic and antimony, separation of, from copper and lead 262
Arsenic, copper, antimony, and lead, determination of, in iron ores 261
Ash in coal and coke, determination of 290
Balances 35
Bamber's method for sulphur in pig-iron . . . 67
Barba, asbestos for settling carbonaceous matter in solutions of steel 159

PAGE

Barba, determination of chromium in steel . . 195
member of Sub-Committee on Methods . . 92
Barium acetate, reagent 51
carbonate, reagent 51
chloride, reagent 51
determination of, as sulphate in iron ores 250
hydroxide, reagent 52
Baryta, caustic, reagent 52
caustic, standard solution of, for determination of methane 307
Berzelius, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
determination of sulphur in iron and steel 63
Boat of platinum-foil for determination of carbon in iron and steel 164
Britton, permanent standards for color-carbon method 182
Bromine, reagent 40
Bromine-water for absorbing ethylene 304
Bunsen burners 21
chimneys for 22
Bunsen, determination of manganese dioxide in iron ores 246
Bunsen's method of rapid filtration 25
Calcium carbonate, reagent 52
chloride, reagent 52
Camera, for use in color-carbon method 181
Caps for reagent bottles 31
Carbon, determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 211
Carbon, determination of, in ferro-chrome . . 217
determination of in ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal 215
in iron and steel 132
in carbonaceous matter, determination of, in iron ores 267
Carbon, combined, determination of, in iron and steel by color method 175
determination of, in white cast iron and pig-iron 183
Carbon, determination of, by direct method . . 175
by indirect method 175
limitations of color method 176
Carbon, fixed, determination of, in coal 290
Carbon, total, determination of, in iron and steel 132
by combustion in the Shimer crucible 171
by combustion with copper oxide in a current of oxygen 145
by combustion with lead chromate and potassium chlorate 143
by direct combustion in a Gooch tubulated crucible 139

PAGE

Carbon, by direct combustion in oxygen . . . 134
by solution and oxidation of the borings by sulphuric, chromic, and phosphoric acids, the carbon dioxide being measured 146
by solution and oxidation of the borings by sulphuric, chromic, and phosphoric acids, the carbon dioxide being weighed 149
by solution in copper sulphate, and combustion of residue by chromic and sulphuric acids 174
by solution in cupric sulphate, and combustion of residue in a current of oxygen 173
by solution in potassium-cupric chloride, and combustion of residue 156
modification of (Job and Davies) 166
by volatilization in a current of chlorine, and combustion of residue . . 151
by volatilization in a current of hydrochloric acid gas, and combustion of residue 156
Carbonic acid gas, reagent 42
absorbent for 300
apparatus for generating 61
determination of, in gases 302
determination of, in iron ores 265
purifying and drying apparatus for, in carbon determinations . . . 153, 161
Carbonic oxide gas, absorbent for 301
absorption of, by cuprous chloride . . 301
determination of, in gases 304, 306
Carnot, determination of aluminum in iron and steel 197
determination of nickel in steel 188
Chase, determination of nickel 191
Chimneys for Bunsen burners 22
Chlorine, reagent 41
Chrome iron ore, analysis of 271
Chrome-tungsten-steels, methods for the analysis of 211
Chromic acid, reagent 42
Chromium, determination of, in ferro-chrome 220
determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 212
determination of, in iron and steel . . 193
ether method 194
determination of, in iron ores 270
separation of, from aluminum, 194, 198, 271
volumetric method for determination of, in iron and steel 194
Chromium and vanadium, separation of, in chrome-tungsten steels 214
Chromium and aluminum, separation of, from phosphoric acid 271
Cinder, mill and tap, analysis of 285
Citric acid, reagent 40
Clay, methods for the analysis of 278
Coal, calorific power of 295

PAGE

Coal, determination of sulphur in 290
heating effect of 295
proximate analysis of 288
ultimate analysis of 294
Coal and coke, methods for the analysis of . . 288
Cobalt, determination of, as sulphate 189
determination of, by electrolysis 190
Cobalt and nickel, determination of, in iron and steel 188
Coke, determination of sulphur in 290
Combined water, determination of, in iron ores 267
Committee on Coal Analysis, reference to . . . 288
Comparison-tubes for color-carbon method . . 180
Cone, Gooch's perforated 28
Copper, determination of, as cupric oxide . . . 188
as cuprous sulphide 188
by electrolysis 186
by precipitation by sodium hyposulphite 187
anhydrous sulphate, reagent 53
metallic, reagent 53
oxide, reagent 55
sulphate, reagent 53
Copper and ammonium, double chloride of, reagent 54
and potassium, double chloride of, reagent 54
repeated use of, for solution of iron and steel 170
Copper, lead, arsenic, and antimony, determination of, in iron ores 261
Counterpoised filters 28
Craig, determination of sulphur in iron and steel 65
Crucibles 32
Gooch's perforated 27
Crucible-tongs, forms of 34
Cupric chloride, reagent 54
Cuprous chloride, anhydrous, reagent 54
reagent, for absorbing carbon monoxide 301
Davies, carbon in iron and steel 166
Deshays, determination of manganese in iron and steel 128
Desiccators 32
Deville, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
Dishes, platinum 33
Distilled water 37
apparatus for making 37
Drill-press 15
Drill-press for holding half a pig of iron 15
Drill-press and balance 61
Drown, determination of silicon in pig-iron . . 73
determination of sulphur in iron and steel 65
determination of titanium in iron 185
member of Sub-Committee on Standard Methods 92
Drying and purifying apparatus for carbon dioxide in carbon determinations 153, 161
Dubois and Mixer, determination of iron in iron ores 229
Dudley, chairman Sub-Committee on Standard Methods 92

PAGE

Eggertz, determination of combined carbon in iron and steel 175
determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 90
Elliott, determination of sulphur in iron and steel 68
Eschka, determination of sulphur in coal and coke 291
Ethylene, absorbent for 302
determination of, in gases 304
Factor weights 36
Feather for removing precipitates 31
Ferric chloride, solution of, for standardizing solutions of permanganate and bichromate . . 230
Ferro-chrome, determination of carbon in . . . 217
Ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal, methods for the analysis of 215
Ferrous-oxide, determination of, in iron ores . . 233
Ferrous sulphate, reagent 56
Ferrous-ammonium sulphate, reagent 56
Filtering-tubes for carbon determinations in iron and steel 162
Filter-paper 29
Filter-pumps 24
Filters, ashless 29
Filtration, Bunsen's method of 25
Fire-sands, method for analysis of 287
Forceps for use in carbon determinations in iron and steel 161
Ford, determination of manganese in iron and steel 113
rapid method for determination of silicon in pig-iron 77
Fresenius, determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 80
determination of sulphur in iron and steel 64
Galbraith, volumetric method for determination of chromium in iron and steel 194
Gas, Siemens's producer, example of analysis of 310
Gases, analysis of, by Hempel's apparatus . . 302
collecting samples of, for analysis 297
methods for the analysis of 297
reagents 42, 300
Glass filtering-tube for carbon determinations in iron and steel 162
Gooch, separation of titanic acid and alumina 241
Gooch's method of rapid filtration 27
perforated crucible and cone 27
tubulated crucible 268
Graphitic carbon, determination of, in iron and steel 174
Handy, determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 104
Hempel's apparatus for the analysis of gases 297
Hogarth, specific-gravity flask 273
Hydrochloric acid, reagent 38
Hydrofluoric acid, apparatus for distilling, 39
reagent 39
Hydrogen, combustion of, with spongy palladium 304
gas, apparatus for generating 61

PAGE

Hydrogen sulphide gas 43
apparatus for generating 61
Hygroscopic water, determination of, in iron ores 223
Igniting precipitates 22
Insoluble silicious matter in iron ores, analysis of 249
Iodine, reagent 41
Iron, determination of, in ferro-chrome, ferro-silicon, and ferro-titanium 221
determination of metallic, in iron and steel 210
Iron, total, determination of, in iron ores . . . 224
by deoxidation by ammonium bi-sulphite 227
by deoxidation by stannous chloride 228
by deoxidation by zinc 225
by standard solution of potassium bichromate 226
by standard solution of potassium permanganate 226
Iron ores, method of sampling 222
Iron wire, reagent 55
Iron and ammonium, double sulphate of, reagent 56
Job, carbon in iron and steel 166
Karsten, determination of graphitic carbon in pig-iron 174
determination of sulphur in iron and steel 60
Kudernatsch, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
Langley, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
determination of nitrogen in iron and steel 207
Lead, determination of, as lead sulphate in iron ores 262
chromate, reagent 57
oxide, dissolved in caustic potash 58
peroxide, reagent 57
Lead, copper, arsenic, and antimony, determination of, in iron ores 261
Limestone, methods for the analysis of 274
occasional constituents of 275
Lundin, determination of arsenic in iron and steel 199
Magnesia, determination of, in iron ores 250
in limestones 275
Magnesia-mixture, reagent 59
Manganese, dioxide of, in iron ores 245
Manganese, determination of, by Bunsen's method 246
by ferrous sulphate method . . 247
determination of, as manganese pyrophosphate 111
as manganoso-manganic oxide 111
as manganous sulphide 112
determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 212
determination of, in ferro-chrome, ferro-silicon, and ferro-titanium 220
determination of, in iron and steel, by acetate method 108

PAGE

Manganese, by bismuthate method 121
by Deshays's method 128
by nitric acid and potassium chlorate (Ford's method) 113
by Volhard's method 116
by Williams's method 118
in presence of much silicon (Wood's method) 115
rapid methods 116
remarks on the use of acetate method 112
determination of, in iron ores 242, 260
by bismuthate method 123
by Pattinson's method 246
by Volhard's method 246
determination of, in pig-iron by bismuthate method 122
determination of, in pig-iron, spiegel and ferro-manganese, by Ford's method . . 115
determination of, in spiegel and ferro-manganese 120
by bismuthate method 124
by Williams's method 120
determination of in steel, by the color method 129
Walter's modification 131
in presence of much silicon (Ford's method) 115
Marguerite's method for determination of iron 226
Matthewman, determination of sulphur in pig-iron 67
Measuring-glasses for reagents 31
Mercuric oxide, reagent 57
Mercurous nitrate, reagent 56
Metals and metallic salts, reagents 53
Methane, determination of, in gases 307
Microcosmic salts, quantity necessary in the determination of magnesia in limestones 275
reagent 46
Mixer and Dubois, determination of iron in iron ores 229
Moisture in coal, determination of 288
Molybdate solution, reagent 59, 97
Molybdenum, determination of, in ferro-molybdenum 206
determination of, in iron and steel 205
rapid method for determination of 206
Morrell, determination of sulphur in iron and steel 63
Mortar, agate, with Stow flexible shaft 13
agate, White's arrangement to use with power 14
hardened steel, for spiegel 17
Mortar and pestle, steel, for crushing ores . . . 12
Muffles 23
Nessler, reagent for nitrogen determinations 208
Nichols, details of rapid method for determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 106
Nickel, determination of, as nickel sulphide or nickel oxide 190

PAGE

Nickel, determination of, by ether method . . . 191
separation of, from cobalt 189
Nickel and cobalt, determination of, by electrolysis 190
determination of, in iron and steel . . . 188
determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 213
separation of, from copper 189
Nickel, chromium, and manganese, determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 213
Nickel, cobalt, zinc, and manganese, determination of, in iron ores, ... 260
Nickel, steel analysis of 190
Nitric acid, reagent 38
Nitrogen, determination of, in gases 309
determination of, in iron and steel 207
Oxalic acid, reagent 40
standard solution of, for determination of methane 307
Oxygen, absorbent for 294
determination of, in gases 304
gas, reagent 43
Pan, aluminum, for weighing samples 36
Penny's method for determination of iron . . . 226
Perforated boat and holder for filtering carbonaceous residues from iron and steel 159
Permanent standards for color-carbon determinations 182
Peters, determination of manganese in steel by color method 129
Phillips, determination of sulphur in pig-iron 67
Phosphoric acid, determination of, in coal and coke 293
in iron ores 233
in limestone 276
in slags 286
Phosphorus, determination of, in ferro-chrome 219
determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 212
in ferro-silicon 219
in ferro-titanium 220
in iron and steel 80
alkalimetric method 104
by direct weighing of phospho-molybdate 106
by the acetate method 80
by the acetate method, precautions necessary 82, 84
by the combination method . . 91
Phosphorus, by the molybdate method 88
by the molybdate method, precautions necessary 91, 92
by the volumetric method (method of the Sub-Committee on Methods of the International Steel Standards Committee) 92
by rapid methods 92
when titanium is present 85, 92
as ammonium phospho-molybdate 91

PAGE

Phosphorus, as magnesium pyrophosphate 85
determination of, in iron and steel, as magnesium pyrophosphate with previous precipitation as phosphomolybdate 90
separation of, from arsenic 82, 91
Phospho-titanate, insoluble 85
Pichard, determination of manganese in steel by the color method 129
Pipette, Hempel's composite, method of filling 301
Hempel's simple, method of filling . . . 300
Plate, chilled iron, and muller 12
Platinic chloride solution, reagent 58
Platinum apparatus 32
combustion-tube for carbon determinations in iron and steel 135
crucibles, method of cleaning 32
filtering-tube for carbon determinations in iron and steel 162
" Policemen " for removing precipitates 31
Potash and soda, separation of 264
Potassium bichromate, reagent 48
bisulphate, reagent 49
chlorate, reagent 49
ferricyanide, reagent 50
ferrocyanide, reagent 50
hydroxide, reagent 47
iodide, reagent 50
nitrate, reagent 48
nitrite, reagent 47
permanganate, reagent 50
sulphide, reagent 48
Potassium permanganate solution, methods of standardizing 96, 229
standard solution of, for determination of iron 233
Potassium pyrogallate, absorbent power of . . 301
Purifying apparatus for oxygen and air 136
Rack for permanent standards in color-carbon method 182
Rapid evaporations, apparatus for 20
Rapid filtration, Bunsen's method of 25
Gooch's method of 27
Reagents 37
for determining phosphorus 59
for the analysis of gases 300
Reductor, simple form of 94
Regnault, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
Removing precipitates from beakers 30
Richards injector 24
Richter, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
Riley, determination of titanium in pig-iron . . 184
Rivot, separation of alumina and ferric oxide . . 259
Rose, separation of alumina and ferric oxide . . 258
Rothe, determination of nickel in steel 191
determination of chromium in steel . . 193
Rubber stoppers 32
Safety-guard tube in carbon determinations . . 137
Sampling iron ores, method of 222

PAGE

Sampling iron ores, pig-iron, method of 15
Sand-bath 18
Sargent, rechlorinated double chloride solution 169
Shimer crucible, determination of carbon by combustion of residue in 171
member Sub-Committee on Standard Methods 92
insolubility of titanium carbide in hydrochloric acid 175
Siemens's producer gas, example of analysis of 310
Silica, determination of, in iron ores 249, 256
Silica, alumina, lime, magnesia, manganese oxide, and baryta, determination of in iron ores 248
Silicon, determination of, in ferro-silicon, ferro-chrome, etc. 218
in chrome-tungsten steels 211
determination of, in iron and steel 72
by solution in nitric and hydrochloric acids 72
by volatilization in a current of chlorine 73
determination of, in pig-iron, Drown's method 73
rapid method, by Ford 77
Slag and oxides, determination of, in iron and steel 78
by solution in iodine 78
by volatilization in a current of chlorine gas 80
Slag, basic, analysis of 285
converter, analysis of 285
Slag decomposed by hydrochloric acid, analysis of 283
not decomposed by hydrochloric acid, analysis of 285
Slag refinery, analysis of 285
Slags, methods for the analysis of 283
Smith, J. L., determination of alkalies in minerals 280
Soda and potash, separation of 264
Sodium acetate, reagent 47
bismuthate, method of making 121
carbonate, reagent 46
hyposulphite, reagent 47, 69
nitrate, reagent 47
thiosulphate, reagent 47, 69
Sodium-ammonium phosphate, reagent 46
Sodium hydroxide, reagent 46
Sonnenschein, determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 88
Spatulas, platinum 34
Specific gravity of iron ores, method of determining 272
flask for 273
Stand for holding absorption apparatus for carbon dioxide in the determination of carbon in iron and steel 138
Standard solutions for determination of iron, proper strength of 233

PAGE

Standardizing volumetric solutions for determination of iron by ferrous sulphate 232
by iron wire 96, 232
by solution of ferric chloride 230
Starch solution, reagent 69
Stead, determination of aluminum in iron and steel 196
Stirring machine for dissolving steel and iron in carbon determinations 157
Sulphates, soluble, determination of, in iron ores 238
Sulphur, conditions of, in coal 293
as sulphides, in iron ores 237
determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 211
determination of, in ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal 216
determination of, in ferro-chrome, ferro-silicon, and ferro-titanium 217
determination of, in iron and steel by evolution as hydrogen sulphide . . . 60
by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption by alkaline solution of lead nitrate 60
Sulphur, determination of, in iron and steel by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption by ammoniacal solution of cadmium sulphate 63
by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption in ammoniacal solution of silver nitrate 63
by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption and oxidation by bromine and hydrochloric acid . . 64
by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption and oxidation by hydrogen peroxide 65
by evolution as hydrogen sulphide and absorption and oxidation by potassium permanganate 65
by rapid method 68
determination of, in coal and coke . . . 290
determination of, in pig-iron, Bamber's method 67
special precautions 67
total, determination of, in iron ores 237
method of reporting amount of, in coal 293
Sulphuric acid, reagent 39
Sulphurous acid, reagent 41
Svanberg and Struve, phospho-molybdate reaction 88
Tartaric acid, reagent 40
Tin, determination of, in iron and steel 200
Titanic acid, determination of, in clay 281
determination of, in iron ores 241
interference of phosphoric acid with precipitation of 241
iron ores containing 240
analysis of 240
separation of, from phosphoric acid 241
tests for, in iron ores 240

PAGE

Titaniferous iron ores, method of recognizing 240
Titanium, determination of, in iron 184
by precipitation 184
by volatilization 185
Triangles and tripods of platinum 34
Tripods 22
Tungsten, determination of, in iron and steel 201
in chrome-tungsten steels 211
in ferro-tungsten and tungsten metal 215
in iron ores 272
rapid method for determination of, in iron and steel 202
Uehling, apparatus for delivering constant volumes of ferrous sulphate solution 120
apparatus for delivering different volumes of nitric acid 178
Ullgren, determination of carbon in iron and steels 133
Vanadium, determination of, in chrome-tungsten steels 213
Vanadium, determination of, in iron and steel 202
determination of, in iron ores 272
Vanadium and chromium, separation of, in chrome-tungsten steels 214
Volatile combustible matter in coal, determination of 289
Volhard, determination of manganese in iron and steel 116
in high grade manganese ores 244
Washing-bottles, forms of 29
Watch-glasses, balanced 36
Water of composition, determination of, in clays 281
in iron ores 267
Water-bath, for determination of hygroscopic water in iron ores 223
for use in color-carbon method and color-manganese method 177
Watts, determination of silicon in iron and steel 75
Whitfield, apparatus for hastening evaporations 20
Williams, method for determination of manganese in iron and steel 118
Wöhler, determination of carbon in iron and steel 133
separation of alumina and ferric oxide . . . 259
Wood, modification of color-carbon method for low steels 180
modification of rapid method for sulphur in iron and steel 71
rapid method for determination of phosphorus in iron and steel 106
Wood, use of hydrofluoric acid in steels high in silicon, and in pig-irons, in determination of manganese 115
Zimmerman, determination of iron in iron ores 228
Zinc, determination of, in iron ores 260
metallic, reagent 58
amalgamated for use in reductor . . 97
powdered for reducing molybdic acid 99
oxide in water, reagent 58

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